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THE
SATURDAY REVIEW
OF
POLITICS, LITERATURE, SCIENCE, AND ART.

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No. 2,600 Vol. 100.

26 August 1905.

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We beg leave to state that we decline to return or to enter into correspondence as to rejected communications: and to this rule we can make no exception. Manuscripts not acknowledged within four weeks are rejected.

NOTES OF THE WEEK.

Lord Curzon's resignation was hardly a surprise, perhaps, but it certainly was a shock. So important a personality in British public life cannot retire from the stage, even for a time, without making a flutter, no matter how likely his retirement may have seemed to many. It is easy to see now that the breach was inevitable: the views of the Cabinet and the Viceroy were incompatible and excluded a middle policy. The India Office modification of Lord Kitchener's plan was no middle policy, though strangely enough Lord Curzon at first seemed to think it was. These differences are always deeply regrettable, but they may leave all parties involved free of blame, if they are faced with dignity and courtesy. Unfortunately Lord Curzon himself has deprived his resignation of dignity, and Mr. Brodrick certainly did not make amends by any excess of courtesy. It is rather a squalid conclusion to a great period. Especially is it unfortunate that Lord Curzon should have allowed the Secretary of State's refusal to appoint General Barrow as Military Supply Member to be the occasion, though plainly not the cause, of his resignation. In that matter he was surely quite wrong. To appoint a combatant soldier of high distinction to a post advisedly deprived of its strictly military significance would have been taking the readiest means to stultify the new system. Lord Curzon should have stood by his first thoughts.

The resignation will not be a very great blow to the Government's popularity, because it will seem to the public to be a preference of Lord Kitchener to Lord Curzon; and of the two Lord Kitchener is undoubtedly the more popular hero. But the real loss to the Government is very great indeed. No one versed in public matters can help seeing that it is a very serious blow to the Government's prestige. The last thing to be desired at this moment was the defection of yet another distinguished colleague. Whatever the merits

may be, it is impossible but that the public should be impressed with the number of the abler men that have fallen away from this Government. It is fast becoming Mr. Balfour against the world. Well, Athanasius won, whatever be the fate of his eponymous creed now.

As for the unhappy Mr. Brodrick, we can only exclaim "Quousque tandem?" No reputation is more disastrous than one for ill-luck; and certainly it cannot be said that everything Mr. Brodrick touches prospers. There is a certain pathos about his case; his faults are punished with much greater severity than graver faults in other men. His work and his devotion to duty no one will question; and we believe his policy and his administration will compare favourably with that of most ministers. Certainly in the light of after-events his career at the War Office shows steadily better, and in this last crisis we cannot question that his policy is on the whole right. And yet he will certainly be blamed on all sides. It only shows once more the importance of manners and temper. Mr. Brodrick can be pleasant enough if he likes; why does he ever allow himself to take up a pen? Let anyone who is inclined to despise such small things as tact and manner consider the awful examples of Mr. Brodrick and Mr. Arnold-Forster. If they in their hour had only considered the case of Mr. Ayrton!

Lord Minto's appointment as the new Viceroy finds critics, as it happens, mainly among those who differ from him on the question of tariffs. His belief in the necessity of fiscal reform on imperial lines is in direct opposition to the views of his brother, the Hon. Arthur Elliot, who abandoned the Ministry to which Lord Minto owes his preferment. It is certainly not without significance that the Government which proposed by its redistribution scheme to abolish the constituency of one brother should select the other for the greatest position in the gift of the King-Emperor. Another curious point is that Lord Minto, having been Governor-General of Canada at a time when the Laurier Ministry had a violent dispute with Lord Dundonald over an appointment in the local Militia, now goes out to India as the result of the differences of Lord Curzon with the Commander-in-Chief concerning the appointment of the Military Supply Member to the Council. Lord Minto's career, particularly in Canada, where he was never a mere register of the will of the Government, gives promise of his success in India, and he will have an invaluable help-meet in Lady Minto.

It is impossible to say whether or no peace is nearer than it was, but it is quite clear that Japan can, if she desires it, have all she fought for originally and something more besides. But there seems no reason to doubt that the Russian refusal to pay an indemnity is absolute. As to Sakhalin the compromises proposed seem more ingenious than happy. The proposal attributed to President Roosevelt that Russia should buy back her own property at a price sufficient to cover the whole amount of indemnity claimed suggests the fictitious bargains and sales of Roman Law and the "Contrat Mohatra" which Pascal made such fun of, whereby you were enabled to practise usury without infringing the Canon Law. But until the plenipotentiaries render their official account of the proceedings, we merely beat the air in discussing pros and cons which have no solid foundation.

If we can believe that the envoys of each Power have been throughout false to the principle of secrecy mutually adopted, and also that they are so little of either gentlemen or diplomatists that they devote their spare moments to confiding their unflattering opinions of one another to newspaper reporters, we may concern ourselves with the columns of guesswork telegraphed over as news. We do not believe it, and therefore do not concern ourselves with pure speculation, but a good deal of amusement may be extracted from the mutual buffetings of the special correspondents of "Times" and "Telegraph"; the latter cruelly upsets the former's theories founded on the "highest" authority by theories founded on still higher authority, which we take to be common sense, and when the "Times" man allows himself to be too exuberantly hopeful, the "Telegraph" points out that Mr. Roosevelt never has or could have done what is attributed to him by his devoted admirer, and that the clouds are darker than ever. Truly, for "Special Correspondents" in present circumstances "motley is the only wear", for they have nothing to do but amuse us, having no news to give.

The Tsar has issued a manifesto announcing the creation of a State Council, which is to meet in January of next year. The Council is to be advisory, considering legislative measures for submission to the Council of the Empire, an executive body; it will also examine the budget statement. The Council ("Duma") will have the power to send back the legislative proposal of a minister, who will have the right to reintroduce it. The franchise is wide, only women and men under twenty-five being excluded. Women otherwise qualified may depute the right to vote to their sons or fathers. The peasantry especially will be strongly represented. The Tsar has taken a great step—very much in the dark. One can only hope it will turn out well. The Tsar's autocracy is of course formally reserved: but there is not much in these legal reservations. The whole question is, will this consultative assembly be captured by the revolutionaries and made into a machine to serve their personal ends, or will it honestly assist the Russian Government? There has, of course, been a chorus of comment. The "intellectuals", as they think themselves, are dissatisfied: that goes without saying: and there is already jealousy between townsman and peasant, and also regional friction. Russia is entering on an era of talk: but not unlimited talk, happily.

The insolence of the Moorish authorities has at length reached a point beyond which European Powers cannot allow it to proceed. It is quite clear that Germany will put no obstacles in the way of France if she desires to exact full reparation for the insults offered to her Algerian subject. M. Rouvier has issued to the press an official intimation of his entire approval of the action already taken by M. Saint-René Taillandier who has demanded an indemnity of \$2,000 and \$100 in addition for every day during which the victim is detained; and the Cabinet has met and confirmed the Premier's view. There is no information as to the French demands being complied with but it is possible that even if they are France will make some demonstration in order to impress the Maghzen with the magnitude of its offence.

The German press has apparently received orders to do its best to tranquillise French public opinion, which does not indeed show any serious symptoms of excitement. The Germans are now discovering the dangers that are always latent in supporting a half-savage State against some European rival. The protégé gets out of hand and the would-be protector cannot afford to stand between him and the chastisement he merits, hence follows a considerable diminution in the respect entertained for the protector who will not protect. As we indicated a fortnight ago the anarchy in Morocco grows apace; the Sultan appears to be anticipating the German loan by lavish expenditure on the amenities of his Seraglio; four Frenchmen have been robbed at the gate of Tangier by armed men. Material for discussion at the conference accumulates with alarming rapidity.

Military methods in South-West Africa having failed to restore peace, the German Government has now decided to try the experiment of appointing a Civil Governor. Herr von Lindquist is to supersede General von Trotha in the direction of the affairs of the colony. It is expected that the General will be recalled, and after the shameful proclamation which the imperial authorities ordered him to withdraw, it seems out of the question that he should be allowed to continue in command. General von Trotha's idea was apparently that the rebellion could only be disposed of by the extermination of the natives. Herr von Lindquist's appointment must not be taken to imply any withdrawal on the part of the Imperial Government from its determination to crush the Hereros. On the other side of the continent the recent troubles are developing into a serious and wide-spread revolt, and troops are under orders for both East and South-West Africa.

According to the "Tribuna" the Vatican is about to take a step in the Far East, the possibility of which we indicated some weeks ago. Hitherto France has always arrogated to herself the protectorate of all Catholics in the Far East, though not without dispute. The Pope, according to that journal, is about to open negotiations at Peking and Tokio for the institution of an Apostolic Delegation at Tokio and a Nunciature at Peking, but M. de Freycinet some years ago successfully resisted a similar attempt on the part of Leo XIII. by making it clear that if the change were carried through, he could no longer defend the "Budget des Cultes". This strong argument is of course no longer available for French statesmen and France is threatened with an immense loss of prestige, in China at all events, for the native converts there number nearly a million and the priests about four thousand. When this proposal is viewed in connexion with her renunciation of similar functions in the Ottoman Empire, it is clear that the position of France throughout the East will be seriously shaken.

It is evident that M. Méline at all events has awakened to the grievous condition into which French prestige is likely to fall through the decay of national ambition and the spread of embittered partisan and religious controversy. So long as the position of Russia was intact, the grievous effects of the religious policy recently pursued and of the rapidly growing love of comfort and ease before everything were hardly visible except to the careful observer, whose remonstrances were either attributed to bigotry or pedantry. Now the whole country has received a rude awakening and finds that the mere desire to refrain from quarrelling does not protect a State and that the place left vacant by religion is not filled automatically by patriotism. M. Méline's interesting address to the Conseil Général of the Vosges coincides with the election of M. Delcassé to the presidency of his Departmental Council. He will hardly be consoled by this for his loss of office but it is a tribute, if a tardy one, to the personality which gave France a prestige in the world now seriously imperilled by his sacrifice. We only hope M. Méline's address may bear fruit as it deserves to do.

The Hungarian Premier has had a long conference at Ischl with the King and, if the statements as to the

decisions arrived at be true, we shall see the loyalty of the Magyars put to a severe test when the Chambers reassemble. It is said that, in case of the Opposition continuing its present tactics, the commercial treaties now pending will be provisionally concluded by the Government, which will also make the disbursements necessary for carrying on the public services on its own responsibility. As recruiting is almost impossible, the reservists are to be called out and finally an appeal is to be made to the country on a new basis of universal manhood suffrage, lavish promises being made to the peasantry of facilities for acquiring land. It seems that, if this be true, the Government is inviting the King to take a highly hazardous course and the conflict may well become internecine. The economic difficulty which lies at the root of much Hungarian discontent is apparently to remain untouched.

Norway and Sweden are proceeding to the dissolution of their partnership in the most admirably methodical manner. If the separation is to be, Sweden properly insists that Norway should do everything in order. Having carried out the first condition and submitted the question to a plébiscite, Norway has now conformed to the second condition laid down by Sweden and formally proposed that negotiations for the abrogation of the Riksakt should be opened. It does not please some of the ultra-nationalists in Norway that Sweden should be treated in this way, but the necessary resolutions were carried in the Storting on Tuesday by 104 votes to 11. The respect shown by the Government to the wishes of Sweden is not only dignified but wise. It means that Sweden will not stand in the way of Norway and it should be a guarantee of civil relations in the future.

Sir John Forrest's Federal budget-statement reveals a state of things in Australia which makes her immigration laws more than ever matter for regret. The Commonwealth revenue for the past year amounts to nearly eleven and a half millions sterling, which in round figures is £100,000 short of the estimate. As a further slight falling-away is anticipated in the coming year it cannot be said that expansion is the keynote of Australian finance, notwithstanding that business has revived after the drought and that Australian external trade exceeds that of such countries as Denmark and Japan. Australia wants the population which her legislation has certainly not encouraged in the last few years. Her credit would be assisted if Sir John Forrest saw his way to carrying out his idea of converting State obligations into a Commonwealth Debt. One item referred to by the Finance Minister should be noted by the advocates of imperial preferential tariffs. Australian trade abroad amounts to £94,500,000 and no less than 75 per cent. of that trade is done within the empire.

A practical turn has been given to an idea which is certainly not new by the resolution of the East Canadian Maritime Board of Trade in favour of the confederation of the British West Indies with the Dominion. What view will be taken of the proposal by Sir Wilfrid Laurier and his colleagues it is impossible to say. If the union could be brought about, it would mean the salvation of the West Indies economically and in a measure imperially. The West Indies, menaced by American tariffs, might easily be to Canada what Cuba and Puerto Rico are becoming to the United States. Many obstacles, however, present themselves: such as distance, the negro question, and difference in the status of government. It has not been possible to bring about the federation of Canada and Newfoundland, though the conditions on the surface are much more favourable. Eighteen hundred miles separate the West Indies from Halifax, and what the late Sir George Grey said of the 1,200 miles separating New Zealand from Australia—that they were 1,200 reasons against federation—will probably be felt in regard to the present proposal.

After the Esperantists the Pacifists or, as they more magniloquently style themselves, "the Inter-parliamentary Conference for promoting international arbitration". This body meets at Brussels next

Monday and will sit down to a full programme. So long as these gentlemen confine themselves to offering and winning prizes to and from one another for the production of voluminous pamphlets which nobody reads they will do little harm, but we tremble to think of the wars they may cause when they proceed to "the elaboration of a general draft treaty of arbitration" and the "procedure in the offer of good offices to settle disputes". The views of the American Senate and President Roosevelt on these matters will be instructive. "The Constitution of a permanent Congress of States" has great possibilities in the direction of an international bear-garden and it will certainly be viewed with great suspicion by all who desire to avoid misunderstandings between the nations. But perhaps the delegates to it will talk Esperanto which may fitly become the "Pacifists'" lingua franca.

The Volunteer Review in Scotland seems to have been fastened upon to make a demonstration against the War Office—or perhaps we should say the Secretary of State—with a view of coercing him to modify his policy as regards the Volunteers. We have always supported Mr. Arnold-Forster in his programme for the auxiliaries; and we trust that in this case the War Office will not allow itself to be coerced. The whole agitation appears to be artificial. In 1860 and 1881 large Volunteer reviews were held in Scotland, without anything being contributed by public funds; and there seems no reason why a like muster should not be held now in similar circumstances, especially if, as is stated, the Glasgow corps at any rate would find no lack of paying supporters.

A natural but not generally anticipated development was foreshadowed by Mr. William Crooks in the speech with which he opened the Co-partnership Exhibition at the Crystal Palace on Wednesday. He suggested that when a trade-union finds it impossible to come to terms in a dispute with the employer, the men, instead of wasting their resources on a strike, should open a rival workshop. What has been done by the Co-operative societies, whose joint profits now exceed £200,000 per annum, the trade-unions with their accumulated funds should not find it difficult to accomplish. Many wasteful and wholly unnecessary conflicts would have been avoided if the unions had been prepared to give their members the opportunity of starting "on their own." The adoption of Mr. Crooks' idea would involve nothing short of an industrial and social revolution.

Delightful in its naïveté is the recently issued report of the Cobden Club for 1904. It is perhaps a little out of date in August 1905, but what else could be expected of an institution for which the principles and tenets of 1846 suffice sixty years after? We are informed that Mr. Chamberlain has led away an unthinking section of the educated class, but the situation has been saved by the sober common sense of the working classes. Perhaps this explains the record of membership of the Club. Down to the time when Mr. Chamberlain roused the Club from its slumbers the number of members was 230 and the subscription was £3 3s. The attack on Free Trade rendered it essential that the Club should get in new funds: in the hope of capturing common sense they reduced the subscription to £1 1s. and expressed a pious hope that the old members would go on paying £3 3s. In two years the number of members who did so had sunk by half. Of the £2,488 spent nearly £1,000 went in salaries and office expenses, leaving less than £1,500 for the propaganda. The Club may be congratulated on carrying out its mission with such complacent self-satisfaction for so small a sum.

Mr. Alfred Waterhouse R.A. died on Tuesday last. Of modern architects probably none was better known than he: and very few can have been nearly so successful. He was very much the sort of "artist" the Academy delights to honour; perhaps a better man of business than man of art. His output was great, and monuments to his memory are many both in London and in the provinces; the most conspicuous being the Natural

History Museum and the Manchester Town Hall. His work is not in favour with the best of our younger architects. A mere question of fashion, say the apologists of Mr. Waterhouse's building. No doubt there is fashion in it, but there is something more.

The death of Dr. David Binning Monro, Provost of Oriel, removes from Oxford a man who took a very active if unobtrusive part in University affairs, and from his own college a head who will be most deeply mourned. He was as unlike his more famous predecessor, Hawkins, as could well be imagined, but before his election Oriel had already lost her position as the theological focus of Oxford, and Dr. Monro's twenty years of rule, though apparently uneventful, did much for the college. His excessive shyness in private life, and the halting manner of his public utterances, gave a very false impression of the real man to those who had merely met or heard him occasionally. In spite of his shyness, he more than maintained the true spirit of Oxford hospitality, and delighted to ask his undergraduates to meet the visitors from the greater world who were often to be found under his roof. As an Homeric scholar he had, of course, a European reputation, but, though he wrote only on his special subject, he had read widely and was at home in many spheres. He was, for example, an excellent modern linguist, and he knew a great deal about ancient Greek music, which appealed to him alike as a scholar and a music-lover. He could tell very good stories, and had a keen dry humour of his own.

On those who were privileged to know him well the Provost's true kindliness, his unparalleled sweetness of disposition, his absolute freedom from any of those mental traits which are sometimes described as "donnishness", have left a very deep impression. The Highland gentleman of the old school was in him combined with the best type of modern scholar. He had great gifts of administration, and many young men were surprised at finding, from those in a position to speak, that in matters of practical judgment he was exceptionally able. He could be determined and incisive, in spite of the diffidence of his manner. His work as Vice-Chancellor, coming after years of such assiduous study as few men dream of undertaking, told heavily on a constitution that was never robust. But his death was quite unexpected, and came as a shock to his friends. Monro can have had little idea how deeply he was respected and loved by juniors to whom he had revealed something of himself. He was incapable of seeking popularity; but a man who is wedded to a high ideal of scholarship, and who besides is unwearied in the practical service of his University and his College, commands a quiet influence wider than the man of the world would suspect.

The British Association has been meeting during the week in Natal. No more interesting and no more painful paper has been read than Colonel David Bruce's on Sleeping Sickness. The name is now only too familiar here, though known to us pampered ones who stay at home only by report. Recent discovery shows that a new terror to this literally lethal malady is added by flies. Biting flies (*Glossina morsitans* and others) beyond all doubt carry the disease from one man to another. Could there be more baffling infectors to fight? The good offices of insects in fertilising flowers by carrying the pollen from one to another have long been known. This sinister service of carrying disease is a black set-off indeed.

It may be very frivolous, but we have no doubt that of all the learned—and unlearned—things said to the Association Professor Darwin's little joke at Durban will have the widest circulation and possibly the longest life. The jokes of the learned are always applauded, but unlike a judge's jest the Professor's had humour in it. To many indeed did that ill-wind blow good, which kept Prof. Darwin's great father from attempting his mad venture—cross country alone from Durban to Cape Town in 1835—and saved the *Origin of Species* and of this year's president of the British Association.

LORD CURZON'S RESIGNATION.

FROM the first Lord Curzon was resolutely opposed to the scheme of reform suggested by Lord Kitchener, and the modifications of it devised by the India Office were not less distasteful to him. The amendments of Mr. Brodrick's scheme suggested, or we might say dictated, by Lord Curzon, effected no material change. It is, and must remain, a mystery how so acute a mind as the Viceroy's could deceive itself into believing that they did. His critics were not similarly misled, and we may well imagine that Lord Kitchener's cheerful acceptance of them was influenced by the perception that they did not interfere seriously with his own project.

When Lord Curzon left England, the Government were aware that he wholly dissented from Lord Kitchener's proposals. He would have done better not to return to India unless he was prepared either to carry out the policy which he condemned or was assured of the support of the Government in rejecting it. At a later stage he found that his very strong representations had not secured acceptance for his views and that the scheme as it returned to him from the India Office was one that neither he nor his colleagues could accept as practicable. He accordingly sent an ultimatum requiring certain changes which he believed would radically alter the character of the measure and provide the safeguards which he considered indispensable. In fact with one exception they were of little or no importance. The only provision which would have contributed anything substantial to the constitutional security for which Lord Curzon contended was that which required the preliminary consideration of all material changes by an advisory committee on which the Supply Member, representing the Viceroy, would have a seat, as well as the Commander-in-Chief. The main principle of Lord Kitchener's scheme which concentrated all authority in purely military matters in the hands of the Commander-in-Chief and his staff—subject to the overruling authority of the Governor-General in Council—remained practically untouched. If Lord Curzon had elected to take his stand at this point and make his retention of office conditional on a radical alteration of Lord Kitchener's proposal, his position would have been clear and intelligible even to those who could not accept his view of the rival schemes. Lord Curzon, however, did not do this. On the contrary he continued to condemn the scheme as essentially unsound and disclaimed all share in its creation: he displayed some justifiable resentment at the abrupt terms in which the orders of the Secretary of State were conveyed and he left the vindication of his views to time, with the clear conviction that the decision would be in his own favour. Yet he inconsequently decided that in spite of his intelligent and informed condemnation of the scheme the inconsiderable modifications introduced at his instance relieved him of the necessity of throwing up his office rather than accept responsibility for a measure of great moment which he believed to be doomed to failure. Not unnaturally a leading Indian newspaper remarked at the time that if the Viceroy's resignation depended on the difference between the scheme in its original shape and the scheme as it then stood, it must indeed have been narrowly averted.

Lord Curzon's character justifies the assumption that it can only have been a high sense of duty and a keen desire to complete in fitting manner his memorable term of service by the reception of the Prince of Wales that led him to accept any responsibility for an important measure of state which his own judgment so decisively condemned. But in one respect it must be recognised that he was misled; a not pleasant incident. A point on which he strongly insisted was that he should have an expert adviser on military questions to act as a check on the Commander-in-Chief. He stipulated that he should be able to employ the Supply Member freely in this capacity and asked for an undertaking that the post should always be filled by a soldier. This pledge could not be given but the correspondence left no doubt that a soldier would be appointed and his services as an adviser be fully at the disposal of the Viceroy. How Mr. Brodrick could have given

such an assurance is one of the painful mysteries with which this case abounds. Passages in the reports of the India Office Committees which formed the basis of his despatch of 31 May make it unmistakably clear that the Supply Member was to have no such functions. He was to "realise that his duties are more of a civil than a military nature and that his business is to assist the Commander-in-Chief in his endeavours to render the army fit for war". His advisory functions were limited to questions of general policy and expressly excluded purely military questions. These reports were not communicated to Lord Curzon and have only now been published. He had therefore every reason to believe that any restriction placed on the advisory capacity of the Supply Member had been waived in deference to his ultimatum. When the appointment came to be filled Lord Curzon suggested General Barrow as an officer qualified to act as his adviser. The nomination was rejected for reasons which obviously indicate a desire to escape from the awkward position in which Mr. Brodrick's acceptance of the principle for which the Viceroy held out had placed the home Government. Lord Curzon had by this time apparently come to realise the futile character of the concessions he had obtained. He pressed again and again for an explicit declaration of his right to have a qualified expert to assist him in reviewing the proceedings of the Army Department. Failing to get such an assurance or indeed any straightforward explanation, he finally insisted on his resignation being accepted. It is a mistake to suppose that he resigned merely on the personal question of General Barrow's appointment. Behind this was the much wider question of the principles underlying the future method of administration. It was better however that the inevitable crisis should arise on the first appointment to the reconstituted post than be postponed to a time when it would throw out of gear a system which had got into some sort of working order.

Throughout we have held that as between Lord Kitchener's and Lord Curzon's views of military administration the balance of advantage lay with Lord Kitchener. But while we regard with satisfaction the eventual adoption of Lord Kitchener's principles, it must be fully recognised that the issue was one of sufficient gravity to justify the Viceroy's resignation; and it is most regrettable that he did not require its acceptance at an earlier stage. His position would have been more dignified and he would have avoided the unfortunate speech which precipitated and embittered the final decision.

It might further be said on Lord Curzon's behalf that the detailed proposals of Lord Kitchener as set forth in his telegram of 10 August would practically remove all traces of control, leave the post of Supply Member a sinecure and establish the Commander-in-Chief in indisputable supremacy in all military matters. But Lord Kitchener has repudiated this description of his proposals. Indeed the conflict of very high authorities on matters of fact makes the most unpleasant reading in this unhappy narrative of muddle, mistake, and misunderstanding. It would be unprofitable to inquire who comes best or worst out of the business; but in view of the recent relations between the Governor-General and the Secretary of State it is at the least surprising to find Mr. Brodrick claiming to have rendered unvarying support to Lord Curzon's administration, and we cannot say his speech at Godalming on Wednesday in any way makes matters clearer.

This is not the occasion to review the work and reforms which have signalised Lord Curzon's great Viceroyalty. Nothing in it has become him so little as the circumstances of its close. History, however, will forget these and chronicle a story of far-reaching reforms and strong just rule for which one must go back over half a century to find a parallel.

TREATIES OF PEACE.

WE have no intention of discussing the proceedings of the Peace Conference. For this reticence there are two good reasons which must inevitably commend themselves to all persons of good feeling and

common sense. Either nothing is really known about the matter at all, in which case comment is obviously futile or, if anything is known, argument as to the position assumed by either party to the proceedings can only be harmful. If we suppose, and the supposition is a large one, that everything is as accurately known to the correspondents of newspapers as they would have us believe, then the acrimonious and insulting tone which some of them assume, especially towards Russia, is likely to have anything but a tendency to induce peace. To be lectured on your duty towards your own country and your neighbour would not influence any man, least of all an autocrat, to adopt a yielding attitude. It may be that Russian public men are sufficiently wise and clear-sighted to ignore the provocations of a hostile press and take their own line but in a more democratic country the constant reproduction of foreign press comments commending their attitude and enforcing their arguments would certainly help to stiffen the back of the people in pressing their demands to the full, and this is what we can well imagine is the effect in Japan of the unrestrained comments of our press. It is therefore the duty of every man who really desires peace to refrain from further darkening the air with irresponsible remarks on matters about which full knowledge is clearly lacking and where comment could only do harm, even were all the facts accurately established.

In the outcome of the present Conference as of all peace conferences, there can be no question of absolute right or wrong on either side, and press comments do the more harm because they apparently proceed upon the assumption that there is such a question. The British people has been throughout strongly in favour of the Japanese contentions, and it therefore argues to-day that one side is right in demanding and the other side wrong in refusing, but an impartial observer sees at once that the question is not one of right and wrong at all, it is simply one of how much give and take may be possible to either side. Up to the present Russia is unquestionably the defeated and Japan the successful party. It is therefore entirely a matter for the former to decide how much she is prepared to surrender for the sake of peace. If she thinks she can retrieve her position, it might be perfectly sensible of her to refuse all concessions at present, on the other hand she might consider her own affairs in such a condition as to demand peace at any price. No obligation of right or justice calls upon her to surrender everything asked because the world at large wants peace, nor is Russia at all in the position of a State whose sword is broken in her hand and the foot of the conqueror on her neck.

Japan on the other side has a different set of problems to solve and no outsider has any claim to intrude his views as to the course she should pursue. She risked everything in what appeared a desperate enterprise and may consider that it is her national duty to run no risks in the future. The risks she is running in continuing the war may however seem justifiable and after all it is not her business to relieve the oppression on our Stock Exchange, if she thinks she can establish her own future by sticking to the exact text of her demands. When the Allies resolved to continue the war of the Spanish Succession because Louis XIV. would not concede terms which he believed humiliating they may have been ill advised but they had before them the dangers of a recrudescence of the Bourbon power. This the historical critic may survey in cold blood, though the Allies could not. Louis on the other hand in refusing what he construed as a humiliation risked greater disasters, but ultimately saved his family honour and that of France. There is no slight analogy between that dilemma and the one that confronts the two parties to the Conference to-day. The world outside has no business to side either with one or the other, and should refrain from criticism till the choice is made.

Of course there may be, and often have been, situations where one side has to submit or be "bled white". That was the condition of France in 1871. To continue the struggle after Paris fell would have been the act, to use Thiers' words, of "a frantic madman". France simply had to yield what Germany

demand, the resources of patriotism were exhausted and there was no chance of any help from outside. Germany may have been wise or the contrary to exact the penalties she did but she was clearly within her right—for her right was nothing but her power to do mischief to the other side. The ultima ratio of these situations is the sword which has been appealed to as the supreme arbiter and it is open to either party, if it thinks it worth while, to appeal to the sword again until final judgment be given.

But policy of course frequently dictates the decision, when the one party does not exact all it might or the other surrender anything that it is seriously wounding to pride to lose. Perhaps the most striking historical example of such moderation in the hour of victory is to be found in the extremely lenient proposals made by Bismarck to Austria after Königgratz. Prussia might safely have demanded large cessions of territory but preferred the ultimate possibility of an alliance with the enemy of the moment, which came about without much difficulty as no ineradicable wound had been inflicted on the adversary's amour propre. But whether he should adopt this attitude or the unpromising rôle played by the same master of policy at Versailles is simply a matter for the judgment of the victor. After all in these days kings and governments do not challenge one another for honour's sake or to see which is the better man. The whole matter is one of deadly earnest and captious comments by outsiders, while the decision hangs in the balance, is both impertinent and injurious. It assumes that the two parties do not know their own business best, and that lookers-on have a right to dictate where the combatants' honour is at stake and where not, than which no greater insult could be offered either to a man or a nation. When a treaty has once been settled and signed each party to it has a right to demand that the other shall observe its provisions but until then each must be the sole judge of its own honour and interest.

This being so, the public have much to answer for in that they almost compel the daily press to regard the Conference rather as an opportunity for journalistic ingenuity than as the crisis of a great international argument. Be the issue what it may, this attitude is inexcusable and deplorable both from the standpoint of good breeding and humanity. It cannot fail to react upon the comity which should prevail among civilised nations even while they admit the existence between them of grave differences.

EDUCATION IN IRELAND.

WE have lately printed two very interesting letters calling attention to the extremely unsatisfactory state of primary education in Ireland. The subject is not easy for Englishmen to understand. Irish education has a distinctive history and a very peculiar organisation. Its problems are presented to an English audience only as incidents in a political campaign, with the result that the Conservative generally assumes that the alleged deficiencies belong to the abundant stock of Irish grievances of whose reality he is somewhat sceptical, while Liberals (profoundly out of sympathy with Irish views as to the place of religion in State education) are inclined to suppose that in some unexplained way Home Rule will get rid of all the difficulties. We are in general agreement with our correspondent Mr. O'Donnell as to the results of the present system. The Irish child is pronounced by experts to be quicker and more teachable than the English child, yet undoubtedly the Irish people are less educated than the English. But, as another correspondent "Hibernicus" has shown, Mr. O'Donnell has injured his case by the unwarrantable assumption that for every defect the British Government is alone to blame. Paradoxically enough, the "religious difficulty" in its English form is not a factor in the Irish situation. The system of primary education set up in 1831 was intended to give combined secular and separate religious instruction to the children of Ireland. The right of entry to the National Schools was secured for ministers of every denomination. But, on the whole, the plan of

a United Ireland in the schoolroom and playground has failed, as might have been expected. But in the seventy years of its existence the National School system has at least brought about two results: it has put primary education within the reach of every Irish peasant, and it has, as regards children, laid the spectre of proselytism, which pervaded Ireland in the middle of the century and has up to the present time paralysed higher education.

The Board of Commissioners of National Education consists of twenty unpaid members, ten of whom are Roman Catholics. They are all men of position and character, and most of them professional men with little time to devote to their unpaid duties on the Board and no claim to be considered educational experts. From the composition of the body it is clear that its decisions on any point on which Roman Catholic differs from Anglican, or either from Presbyterian, are likely to be in the nature of compromise. The Board possesses a charter, and the Lord-Lieutenant's control over it is nominal. It depends on Parliament for its finances, but is not responsible to Parliament for its policy. Probably its members are what Mr. O'Donnell calls "opposed to national demands": in other words, they look upon themselves as servants of the existing Constitution. But so long as any Irishman who accepts office under the Crown is denounced by Nationalists as a traitor and renegade, it is clear that the Irish bureaucracy cannot contain many advanced Home Rulers. A more important fact is that Irish elementary education is controlled by a practically irresponsible board of amateurs, though the Resident Commissioner, a permanent official, is an expert. During the last few years some striking improvements have been made in the syllabus, which was formerly remarkably bad. Under it children were unintelligently crammed to answer certain specified questions, and no attempt was made to train their minds. The abolition of result-fees and the introduction of new subjects into the curriculum have already effected real improvement, but the teachers are still under the influence of the old bad system.

The position of the teachers is very anomalous. Their salaries are paid direct by the Board, but they are appointed by the local management. Their promotion depends on the Board, their existence on the manager. Either the Board or the manager may dismiss them. The initial salary is £56 for a man and £44 for a woman, the maximum for assistants £86 for a man and £72 10s. for a woman. These salaries are of course inadequate, and yet the supply of candidates greatly exceeds the demand. The only point in which, according to Mr. Dale, Irish assistant teachers are better off than English is that they have a far better prospect of becoming principals. In fact 81·6 per cent. of Irish male National School teachers are principals. But the average income of an Irish head teacher compares very badly with the English: the Irishman is paid £99 as against the Englishman's £147, while the Irishwoman earns about £88 where her English colleague has £97. The Irish master can rise to £175 and the mistress to £141. Irish schools are generally far smaller than English, and consequently the professional prospects are much less favourable. Promotion is uncertain, and the teacher is far too much in the power of the manager.

The position of the manager is really the most difficult question of all. In four-fifths of Ireland he is usually the parish priest. We have no doubt that the parish priest is the best manager of an Irish National School, if he is personally qualified for the post. We shall not be suspected of any bias against clerical influence in education. But it is impossible to forget that the educational level of the Irish priesthood is not high. Dr. O'Dwyer, the Roman Catholic Bishop of Limerick, has stated that they are often "deficient in that indefinable thing that is not knowledge, but culture . . . a something which cultivates a sense of honour and a right judgment with regard to the affairs of life". The present system has secured the adherence of the Irish clergy and their flocks to national education, but the price paid for this has been somewhat heavy. When Mr. O'Donnell protests against the absence of popular control, we do not quite understand

whether he considers priestly control in Ireland anti-popular. For there is no doubt that the priests are the masters of the situation. They have the teachers completely in their power, and they are practically independent of the Board. A manager can only be dismissed after public inquiry—and the Commissioners are not inclined to stir up hornets' nests. A manager may be laid up for four years, and the school buildings have to wait during the whole of that time for any sort of attention. (The case is a real one.) Inexpert readers of Mr. O'Donnell's letter would suppose that if a school is in a filthy condition, as many are, the parsimony of the Board is to blame, whereas in fact the cleaning of the buildings is entirely under local control. Local bodies may strike rates for such purposes but they never do. Probably the unfortunate teacher pays for it himself. If the manager is careless in such matters, it is very difficult to bring him to book. The State pays the teachers direct, and the manager does not suffer financially for his school's inefficiency or insanitary condition. If a grant were withdrawn, the teacher would starve and the children go untaught, but, in a rural parish, the priest would probably be looked on as a martyr to a tyrannical Government.

In Ireland the average attendance of pupils represents only 65 per cent. of the number on the books, and in the places in which compulsory education has been adopted a minimum of 150 days' attendance in the year is all that is required. It is the fashion in some quarters to believe that the Irish people are thirsting for education, but there is little evidence for the belief now, whatever may have been the case in the eighteenth century. Few districts have taken advantage of the Act which allows them to adopt compulsion and form partly elective attendance committees. Local contributions to the cost of education are very small—some 3s. for every £2 8s. 6d. found by the State. Local bodies can and at times do obtain loans for the erection of teachers' houses, and the original erection of schools was of course largely due to local effort. Naturally municipal bodies will not accept expenditure without power, and the present system is certainly not calculated to arouse public interest in education. If we saw the remotest chance of increased efficiency from the introduction of the kind of local control which in England accompanies maintenance from rates, we should be more hopeful. But, in the first place, an education rate is in many poor parts of Ireland really impossible. Secondly, the Irish County Councils and smaller bodies show little promise of becoming possible educational instruments. To substitute a local board for a clerical manager would generally be to take away the priest's responsibility while leaving his powers untouched. The Roman Catholic laity look on education as a matter entirely in the priest's province, and the clergy fiercely resent any plan for introducing local control.

Managers of more than one denomination have often deliberately multiplied schools to an unnecessary extent, thus creating salaried posts within their own gift. The new policy of the Commissioners is to reduce the number of schools by amalgamating unnecessary infants' schools with girls' schools. Many priests—and even bishops—see grave moral danger in allowing boys under seven to go to school with girls! We know far too much about the Irish Roman Catholics to accept such an extraordinary view of their nature, but it is really a disquieting sign that priests should be suffered thus to slander their flocks without protest, and the incident illustrates the average manager's attitude towards reform.

The best hope of progress seems to lie in creating a really efficient Central Board, and strengthening its powers. We have no illusions on the subject: such a body must come at times into sharp collision with managers, and whenever this happens the people, whom Mr. O'Donnell believes so keen on education, will side with the managers. But that is no reason why children should suffer for the political temperament of their parents. If there were a Roman Catholic University whose graduates found seats on the local bodies, the laity would take some interest in education. The co-operation between County Councils and the Department of Agriculture and Technical Instruction should in time

qualify the former for a place in educational management. But as things are, the formation of a really strong Central Board with a first-rate permanent staff is the first essential. To such a body should be entrusted also the control of secondary education. The system of intermediate examinations under a separate Board has made Ireland a country of cramming establishments, which every year turn out young men destitute of real education, and, according to many Catholic Irishmen, without any intelligent grasp of the faith to which they are attached. There is no co-ordination between primary and secondary education: the former is defective and the latter misdirected.

PUBLIC LIBRARIES AND READING.

THE meeting of the Library Association at Cambridge this week suggests some considerations that may probably not be much discussed in public by its members. With the technicalities of the librarian's business we are not at present concerned; that to lay minds they present all the unintelligibility and none of the forbidden charm of the occult sciences may be proved, if any were inclined to doubt it, by the fact that that excellent periodical "The Library" has so hard a struggle for existence. But the free library as a social institution is of interest to every ratepayer, and it is worth while to pass in review some of its results. It must be confessed that free libraries have so far, like compulsory education and other reforms, justified the prophecies of the cynic rather than those of the philanthropist. If the result of putting good literature within the reach of the masses had come up to the expectations of enthusiasts, the halfpenny press of modern England would have taken a character remarkably different from that which it now manifests. The public has not shown very much desire to read anything but fiction, and indifferent fiction. But there is a residue which wants to read serious books, too costly to be bought by working-men, and the existence of this element justifies the free library system. Public reading-rooms are not comfortable enough to attract people who can buy books, or join a circulating library.

The normal reader is very much at the mercy of the authorities who select books, and it is a very serious question how far the managers should, and do, exercise discrimination in the choice of books. The half-educated may have a vague wish to "improve their minds", but they need guidance. Thus as regards history, only they who know something already can decide what more they wish to read. Some of us wish, for reasons of our own, to examine the history of Madagascar or Lapland: our course is clear. But there are many who would enjoy well-written histories, but have no notion as to the relative attractiveness of historians or the comparative importance of countries. Tell such a man that J. R. Green is more interesting than a bad novelist, and he will take up and find pleasure in accounts of Italian cities which will do more for his mental horizon than some badly written and misleading book on the Transvaal or the politics of Russia. Or Macaulay may take a man to India (unhappily misleading him as to the careers of Clive and Hastings) who, had he set out expressly to learn something of India, would have quailed before the conscientious dulness of more recent authors.

It is clear to us, from some acquaintance with library catalogues, that the people responsible for buying books do in fact show little discrimination. They will stock the late Mr. Boothby and eschew George Eliot. The local committees are well-meaning, but they cannot be wiser for others than they are for themselves. Their views are generally strict: they ban books that will obviously corrupt the morals of the crowd, while they push the circulation of others that must reduce their minds to pulp. The small tradesman is peculiarly susceptible to the attraction of modern writers who treat lofty themes in a vicious style with complete absence of knowledge; who multiply pretentiously long words and take their self-imposed mission seriously. We are a solemn people when half-educated: it might be argued that only the illiterate and the cultured

possess humour. But our local censors of literature have a feeling that Dickens, for example, is merely amusing while Miss Corelli or Mr. Caine is elevating. So they determine to elevate their helpless charges—and in the process rob them of all chance of acquiring sound judgment in books. We are not at all satisfied that librarians, who should know more than their masters, can be trusted to counteract the effects of their well-meant ignorance.

We do not wish to adumbrate any particular scheme, but it may be seriously considered whether, if free libraries are to contain fiction at all, some attempt might not be made to erect a higher authority with control over the acquisition of novels. It should be quite possible to create a consultative body in connection with the British Museum or the Universities. And the literary food of the people, provided at the public cost, is a matter of national concern. But as things are, the task of selection should not be difficult. Books which have stood the test of time are to be bought in excellent format: the cheap reprint of the classic no longer demands the sacrifice of its reader's eyesight. We attach much importance to this question of print: a working-man whose hours of labour are spent under trying conditions, largely, in many cases, under artificial light, ought to be able to find his books clearly printed.

The free libraries are not to be blamed for the badness of the public taste: their condition is an effect, not a cause. The well-to-do patrons of circulating libraries show little better judgment. But it may at least be claimed that when public money is expended some effort should be made to secure real benefit to the public. A bad book is not more readable than a good; the very fact that the pretentious bad boom more largely than the frivolous bad shows that the instinct of the uneducated is not merely for cheap amusement. Dante Rossetti held that poetry ought to be as amusing as fiction, but we do not expect the plain man to find it so. Still he should be encouraged to see for himself why the great writers won a large public in their day, instead of being tempted, as he is, to swell the mass of followers of the living second-rate.

We would not altogether condemn the practice of turning free libraries into circulating libraries, but it is evident that here enters the prospect that potential book-buyers will, so to say, go on the parish for outdoor relief. We have not the least objection to the use by the substantial rate-payer of the institutions which he is compelled to support, but if people ceased to buy books because they could borrow them at the town-hall, it would be almost as lamentable as if they discontinued the domestic bath because public bathing-places are provided by the municipality. We doubt, in fact, whether novels ought to be allowed out, though we should be very sorry to prevent the busy man at the end of a hard day's work from being able to read in his own home the books on general subjects which he really wishes to enjoy at leisure.

The middle class is even more under the sway of the great circulating libraries than the poor are dependent on free libraries. For the former own a tradition that it is well to have books lying about the house. Circulating libraries may conceivably be necessary, but we are sure that they encourage a slovenly and slap-dash skimming of the books "which everybody is talking about", while they eliminate books worth reading to replace them by trivialities. We have grave doubts whether they encourage appreciably the reading of good books. We are sure that they, and they alone, make possible the appalling outcrop of bad books, inaccurate books, dishonest books, on topics of the moment. How many of the recent books on the condition of Russia would have found their way into print had there been no Mudie and no Smith? The nation may be as preponderantly foolish as Carlyle thought, but there would not have been enough consummate fools to buy largely some of these collections of bogus "revelations". But everybody gets them from the library.

The circulating-library system inflicts hardship on the author and the publisher. It throws open such an enormous mass of printed matter that its patrons have no time to read thoroughly, and so lose all inclination

to buy. Mark Pattison used to lament that there were in Oxford graduates with an income of £500 a year who did not spend even £120 on books! His death preserved him from the worse evils that have come upon us. The fact that most country houses have a really good library up to about 1860, and of books published since only a few railway novels (unless of course the owner is an enthusiast in natural history or sporting books) is by no means entirely due to agricultural depression. We have ceased to buy books, and no longer care to give a good book a good dress. Our best binders seem to find few patrons at home. To those of us who feel that the love of books is almost a moral influence, the maelstrom of the circulating libraries brings a kind of mental nausea.

THE CITY.

WHILST the peace negotiations are still in progress an irregular stock market is to be expected, but on the whole the Stock Exchange has remained very steady during the past week. On Tuesday those securities which are most sensitive to political influences fell sharply, more particularly Consols and Japanese bonds. The following day witnessed a complete change of front, and whilst the premier security recovered its former quotation, all Japanese issues advanced to the highest prices marked during the week; at the time of writing the improvement has been fully maintained and the tone is less confident throughout all markets; South Africans even have been also fractionally better, although there is not sufficient genuine business in this section to maintain the improvement.

In the event of peace we think it is morally certain that a rise on present prices will take place, but it must not be forgotten that the dominant power in the money market at the present moment is Japan, and it is by no means clear what will be done with the large funds which are held on her account in London. An instance of the control exercised by these funds was seen during the past week when the money market was positively swamped by the release of £4,000,000 of Japanese money. Should Japan withdraw any considerable portion of these funds a sharp pinch would doubtless be felt, as the usual provision for Egypt and South American requirements falls due at this period and exports of gold have already begun. The temporary dislocation would—unless anything untoward occurs in foreign politics—be largely counterbalanced by the inflow of capital from the Continent, but on the whole we look for higher money rates during the next month or two. This factor may act as a drag on the upward movement of gilt-edged stocks, although for reasons which we have given in these columns we are of opinion that the relief felt by the whole financial world at the conclusion of peace, with the consequent release of funds at present ear-marked and termed "bad money" by bankers, will largely modify the deterrent effect of higher rates.

Apart from international securities the features of interest in the House have continued to be American railroad shares and South American railway securities. In the former section a sharp rise in Reading shares has taken place on the rumours as to an impending scheme of fusion of the coal roads; Ontarios and Eries have participated in the rise for the same reason, but the common stock of these companies cannot be regarded as much better than market counters at present, although their potential value is possibly very considerable. The phenomenal improvement in the United Railways of Havana ordinary stock has continued, the quotation having reached 196 at which price bargains have been marked: a year ago the lowest point touched was 69. This remarkable improvement is to a certain extent attributable to speculative buying, but the earnings of the company show continuous expansion and if the statement is correct that the dividend for the half-year is to be 9 or 10 per cent. with a bonus in the shape of stock the round 200 will probably be reached: the 6 per cent. debentures of the Manila Railway Company are also 8 points higher.

The issue of Mr. H. W. Birks' half-yearly analysis

of accounts of the London joint-stock and private banks is a publication of great interest to financial circles, and may be studied with interest by all investors in banking securities. The issue of 14 August brings the figures up to the date of the last-published balance-sheets and sets out with its usual clearness the various items enabling the position of the banks to be seen at a glance. It is a matter of regret that, for purposes of comparison, there is a difference in the form and date of a number of the balance-sheets and the return does not include the Bank of England or great provincial banks which have their headquarters away from London. It is not however until one sees the total figures that one can appreciate the vast amount of capital employed in banking in London. The total working resources of the twenty-two banks detailed by Mr. Birks amounts to no less a sum than £541,725,010 made up as follows:—

Total paid-up capital	£34,217,893
Reserve funds	21,534,382
Deposits	467,677,726
Acceptances and foreign bills indorsed	18,295,009
Total	£541,725,010

Behind the total of £55,752,275 representing the paid-up capital and reserves there is a sum of £120,885,227 in respect of uncalled capital which would become available in certain contingencies. On the other side of the account is shown the manner in which the assets are held, amounting to £543,889,442.

Cash in hand and at Bank of England	£87,358,390
Cash at call	69,744,718
Investments in Government Stocks	95,456,776
Bills discounted, Loans and other securities	291,329,558
Total	£543,889,442

The ratio of cash to deposits and acceptances varies considerably but averages about 15 per cent., whilst cash at call—the second line of defence as it may be termed—is about the same figure: of the larger joint-stock banks the Union of London and Smiths shows the highest percentage of cash, the London and County, Lloyds, Parrs, Capital and Counties, National Provincial Bank of England and Barclays following in the order named with little difference between them. Without going into any closer detail, the figures we have given illustrate the sound lines upon which our London Banks are conducted and will be appreciated by the many investors who hold banking securities. The chief criticism to which our banking system lays itself open is in respect of a gold reserve. This thorny question has been discussed by bankers for many years, but no satisfactory solution has been found without a sacrifice which competition prevents any individual institution from adopting. The subject is one of considerable technical difficulty but it is sufficient to remark that although the cash resources of the Banks appear to be quite adequate to any demand which may be made upon them, yet the ultimate custodian of those cash resources is the Bank of England whose gold reserve would certainly prove inadequate at any considerable crisis. The keen competition between the Banks prevents their holding any large stock of coin in their vaults, as such money would of course become unremunerative and shareholders would, in the end, suffer.

The objection felt by many investors to bank shares is in the liability attaching to the uncalled capital, but an examination of the reserves held, together with the proportion of investments in gilt-edged securities—all of which are probably written down to below their market value—should be reassuring. Our bankers as a body are held to be less enterprising than their continental neighbours and this is possibly correct, but it must not be overlooked that this very conservatism is to a certain extent a safeguard to the interests of the investor. The yield from most bank shares at the present price and calculated on the dividends for the last year is about £4 10s. to £4 15s. per cent., and we should imagine that if an investor wished to be quite secure, an insurance could be effected to cover the contingent liability existing on any first-class bank share at a nominal premium.

INSURANCE.

SOME MALPRACTICES.

BRITISH Life assurance as a whole is conducted on such sound lines that it can well afford to be criticised with the utmost frankness and such criticism will not be regarded as any attack upon its intrinsic merits.

A few customs have been creeping in of recent years which are to be regretted and which ought to be stopped. They arise out of the competition for new business which is very keen. One of these evils is that of "rebate". This means that a policy-holder is allowed a reduction of his first year's premium and sometimes a reduction of all the premiums he has to pay. We have acquired the system from the United States where it grew to such an extent as to require concerted action among the companies for its suppression. The rate of commission paid to an agent frequently increases on all the business he does if the amount of new assurances exceeds a certain limit. In order to pass the limit and obtain an extra 5 or 10 per cent. upon the whole of the new premiums it pays the agent to charge some policy-holders half the premium, or even nothing at all, for the first year. It is easy to issue policies on such terms but the second premium is not very likely to be paid. The agent and the policy-holder gain but the company loses heavily; it pays extravagant prices for worthless business.

A kindred system is not unknown among British Life offices. It takes various forms. One method is to appoint any applicant for Life assurance an agent of the company and allow him commission on his own case, it being perfectly well known that he will never introduce any more business. There are many companies which do this unblushingly at their head offices and at all their branches. The "agency appointment" is a mere farce and is simply a dodge for attracting a policy-holder by doubtful means when he cannot be secured by fair. Another plan is to allow the agent or branch manager such terms as will enable him to give the policy-holder a rebate or commission on the first premium and perhaps on subsequent premiums as well. The extra terms to the agent are given in order to provide for such payments to the policy-holders.

A third system which is still more objectionable may be illustrated by a case which occurred quite recently. An intending assurer made inquiries of an old established British office and of an American company. The American policy was the better and its premium almost 12 per cent. less than the British company's published rate. Whereupon the British office took about 8 per cent. off its premium and offered to make the man an agent allowing him a commission of 5 per cent. on all premiums paid. The American company refused to alter their published rate or to allow any commission.

We maintain that all such systems of rebate are entirely wrong. The whole system of mutual combination for Life assurance purposes is based upon the equitable treatment of all policy-holders and to charge one man 12 or 13 per cent. less than another for the same thing is grossly unfair. It adds to the cost of managing the business and so diminishes the profits of the majority of the policy-holders. Happily the people who plume themselves upon being smart enough to make good terms by insisting upon rebate or commission gain nothing by doing so. The best companies refuse to give commission or rebate to policy-holders other than properly appointed agents who are bringing in other clients. Such offices deal fairly with their policy-holders, work economically and give better results to their policy-holders for each £10 actually paid in premiums than the man receives who obtains rebate or commission. The really shrewd man would ask to be appointed an agent or demand some special terms; if his request were acceded to, he would know it to be in his own interests to take a policy elsewhere. There is the further feeling that if an office will treat other policy-holders unfairly by giving special terms to one, it will treat that one unfairly in settling the claim, allotting the bonuses or in some other way whenever the opportunity offers.

HOLIDAYS AND HOTELS, FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC.

THE lucky and select few who have "places" of their own wherein to spend the summer holidays are a negligible quantity. The majority of the well-to-do either hire a house, or go to an hotel. The cardinal fact about the present holidays is that the number of houses hired is smaller, and that consequently the hotels are more crowded than usual. The explanation is doubtless the same as that of the diminished consumption of wines and spirits, namely, poverty. For as we cannot imagine anyone drinking water, except on principle, who can pay for champagne or whisky, so we cannot fancy anyone who can afford to hire a house submitting to the discomforts of an hotel. The cause of this rich man's poverty, in the face of rising exports and imports, would take us too far afield to examine, and might lead us on to dangerous ground. But the fact that all the hotels both at home and abroad have been most unpleasantly crowded during the past four weeks cannot be disputed; and this in its turn has led to a revival of the controversy why Britons prefer foreign hotels to their own. Since the erection of the mammoth Gordon and Maple establishments, the reproach of squalor and ugliness and dirt has been removed from our hotels. If one excepts the Schweizer Hof at Lucerne, which cannot be approached by any rival in any country, the average English hotel is more luxuriously and tastefully furnished than the average foreign hotel. But unfortunately one cannot lunch off saddlebag lounges or dine on alabaster pillars. The food supplied by the palaces which line the coasts of our island is abominably bad. Are the visitors aware of the fact? That is an interesting question. We read the other day with pleasure that a gentleman had refused to pay his bill at one of the best known and most gorgeously upholstered hotels because he could not eat his meals. Some people there are, no doubt, who are accustomed to good cooking in their own homes, but who feel it a matter of patriotism to put up with the garbage which is served up under pretentious names; they think of the British inn as a national institution, which must keep its tail up in the presence of foreigners. But why do the foreigners, who have no such motives to sustain their martyrdom, suffer the ordinary hotel-manager and his menus? Well, the number of French and German visitors in our seaside hotels is small; and, being in a minority in a country whose brutality they are honestly afraid of, they do not like to make a row. The American tourists stick to the large towns, which absorb the best food in the country. The majority of the guests in the holiday hotels are drawn from the rich shopkeeper class, and as they pay enormous bills and seem to be enjoying themselves, the only possible inference is that the table d'hôte meals are to their liking. The amount of money these people spend on their outing is astounding, and ought to dispel any feeling of pity which the "long-winded" debtor of Mayfair might be inclined to harbour. The writer was staying the other day at one of the most expensive hotels on the South coast, and amused himself by ascertaining the names and addresses of the visitors who occupied the most expensive suites of rooms. They came from Maida Vale and S. John's Wood and Brixton, and some bore well-known Bond Street names. They nearly all had motor-cars, and troops of servants, and their bills must have been hundreds a week. After the holidays are over, they return sensibly and soberly to their suburbs and their shops. These are the men who leave in their wills sums ranging from £100,000 to £200,000: they contribute substantially to the wealth of the nation: but on their shoulders lies a heavy burthen of guilt. They are the patrons, and are therefore responsible for the infamous cooking by which our hotel companies poison and pocket thousands.

Abroad it is a very different story. Foreign hotels are seldom owned by a company, but nearly always by an individual. Personal interest and supervision are therefore present, and it is not too much to say that in Switzerland, Italy, Germany, and Austria, at a "first-class" hotel—the term has a definite

meaning—one is sure to be well fed. Everybody in and about a foreign hotel, from the head-waiter down to the under-cooks, takes an interest and a pride in his business. In a British hotel the servants seem ashamed of being caught ministering to the creature-comforts of others, and even the Germans and Italians catch over here the surly listless air of English cooks and waiters. The British coffee-room has generally a thick carpet, which is never swept, and into which are trodden the crumbs and scraps of meat. Its smell can only be compared to that of the dining-saloon on a steamer. How sweet is the *salle à manger* of the foreign hotel, with its parquet floor, its long French windows, and its faint odour of fried butter and vanilla! France is the country of culinary extremes: there the cooking is either very good or very bad. The idea that the humblest French inn will produce an appetising dish is a myth. We have had some of the most nauseous as well as some of the most exquisite meals in France; and, outside the large towns, a French hotel, unless it is in the way of receiving English and American visitors, will have sanitary arrangements such as those described by Arthur Young in the eighteenth century. Of the hotels in the United States it only remains to be said that they are four times as expensive as British hotels and, in every point except that of service, four times as good. The dollar goes almost exactly as far as the shilling. That is to say, you pay eight dollars, i.e. thirty-two shillings, for a room on the fourth floor of an American hotel, accommodation for which you would pay eight shillings a day in this country. Attendance, in the shape of getting your bell answered, hot water brought, or boots cleaned, is simply non-existent in an American hotel. But in cities like New York, Chicago, Boston, and even remote towns like Denver, the cooking of the restaurants and the quality of the food are as good as you would get in Paris. The linen and the sanitary arrangements of American hotels leave nothing to be desired. Unquestionably the worst hotels in the world are those in the East, in India, at Singapore, Hong-kong, and Shanghai. In a hot and relaxing climate, alert attendance, sweet-smelling rooms, and a provocative cuisine, ought to be, but alas! are not, provided by Eurasian caterers. The food, because fresh-killed, is tough and tasteless; the Chinese boys smell; and the rooms are frowsy. Having run over nearly the whole world, we are of opinion that the best hotel in which the fastidious traveller can hang up his hat is the Oriental Palace at Yokohama.

MOTOR TOURING.

2. THE CHAUFFEUR.

MUCH of the horror of motoring is centred in the chauffeur. The owner who is ignorant of mechanics is hopelessly in his hands; it is his convenience that must be consulted, it is he who gives the word to stop and to go on, he who decides that you must sleep at Coventry when you had intended to go on to Shrewsbury. He shakes the nerves of timid passengers by driving fast round corners, or grazing the wheels of hay-carts; he finds it necessary to go fast when you would like to go slowly and enjoy the scenery; and if you want to push on to your destination, he has a reason for going slowly, or for stopping to effect a "roadside repair". You may not make plans without consulting him; he is ruthless in his discouragements; he spends your money with a fine liberality, and you learn to dread his statement of accounts, presented on the oily page of a notebook. He smokes the vilest known cigarettes—there seems to be a brand especially blended for chauffeurs: he eats and drinks expensively, and at the wayside inn where you put up he monopolises the service. He is too often unclean in his person; in a word, he is a bane and a shadow on your life; and he is deadly competent when he chooses. So far of the Idle Chauffeur.

The Industrious Chauffeur is often an enthusiast in spectacles, with the manners of a student of divinity, a whole-hearted devotion to his employer and his

employer's motor-car, and an incorrigible tendency to misfortune. It is he who stays up all night wrestling with the magneto, has it remounted by nine in the morning, arrives, bleared, unwashed, but smiling, to tell you all is ready, and then, when he goes to start the car, finds he has forgotten to put in the bushes. It is he who, in a week of wet weather and a fit of fanatical enthusiasm, takes your car to pieces and is unable to refit the gears, so that expensive mechanics have to come from a great way off, and take rooms in your village; he who loses a finger in your service, so that, dismayed, you see him bound tight to you in the bonds of misfortune; he who runs over a baby in the attempt to save a chicken's life, he who has a widowed mother and invalid sister, so that you are ashamed to discharge him. He knows no limitations of possibility, he is an enthusiast in the projection of tours, all can easily be ready at the appointed day and hour; and yet when the hour strikes the car does not come; and you know in your heart that the rugs and baskets and valises piled in the hall will not be wanted. He always has a reason; and when you do start you will find that he has involved you in an expense of £30 for a renewal, because he did not like to incur the expense of £5 for a repair. He shrinks from prevention, and plunges you into cure.

Between these unhappy dilemmas there is but one sensible course of action for the ignorant owner. He must cease to regard his chauffeur as the mysterious professor of an occult art who collaborates with him in enjoyment; he must regard him as a servant—a responsible and trusted servant—but yet a servant, who is there for the express purpose of doing one thing and doing it well. There has hardly been time yet for a definite class of English chauffeurs to have been evolved; at present they are too often odd-job men, failures at other trades, who have picked up a smattering of motor knowledge in a workshop. The French chauffeur is not to be recommended to ordinary English people. He is clever enough, and may keep your car going; but he will probably do so at great expense, he will certainly have a tendency to drive too fast, and he will be unable to fall in with the habits and traditions of English out-door servants. Germans are better; but unless you have a Mercedes car, I do not even recommend a German. If you have time, and can afford it, it is a good plan to get hold of some clever odd-job youth of good character, send him to the works where your new car is being built, let him see the car in every stage, and make himself useful in the works for, say, six months. If he is taught driving by a good man, has any mechanical aptitude and knows how to use tools, and takes a pride in his car, he will develop into quite a good motorman, capable of doing small repairs. And for any car of under 12 horse-power, such a youth will probably serve your purpose.

But if you have a large motor-car and wish to tour in comfort, you need much more than this. In that case the best thing to do is to engage a mechanic—that is, a man who has served his time in an engineering shop—who is also a good driver; but practically any mechanic can be taught to drive a motor-car in a few weeks. English mechanics are as a rule a good class of men, sober, competent and trustworthy; your only difficulty may be that some of them do not like being treated as domestic servants. That is to say, they may object to wear livery, and so forth. Well, those difficulties can be got over. For touring work no one wishes to have his chauffeur in conspicuous livery; in fact, nothing looks better than a plain dark-blue serge suit and peaked cap, which no one objects to wear; while a little tact in the handling of your chauffeur—whom in this case you may even call your engineer—will secure from him all the propriety of behaviour that you can desire. The wages of such a man will probably be £3 per week—good wages, of which, if he be competent and conscientious, he will earn every penny. Your terms with him should be quite simple. "Here", you should say, "are a good motor-car, good wages, clothes, a house (this by arrangement); I will not grumble at a reasonable expenditure on upkeep, spare parts, &c. The terms are that whenever I want the car, it and you must be ready. You may have to

stay up all night getting it ready: I want to know nothing about that; all I care about is that it should always be ready and in good condition—which means that whenever it comes in you must not leave it until it is cleaned, washed, filled, and ready for the road. You may expect a whole day off every week, and you will often not be required for days at a time; but you must always be ready. If not, it will be understood that you have failed in the performance of your duties, and that you go." Any good man will cheerfully accept such terms. He will often be hard worked, but he will often have days in which his time is practically his own. His skill will be sufficient for all ordinary repairs, and the car need never be inside a workshop except for its annual overhaul. You will soon discover if he is extravagant in the use of material, spare parts, &c., and if he is, be able to check him. He will save you money, in spite of his large wages; and you will have the satisfaction of knowing that your car starts out every day in the pink of condition. For it is work that makes a motor-car go, and idleness that causes it to stand still by the roadside.

THE BAND.

"OH! listen to the band" sings Mr. Lionel Monckton in one of those moments in which he drops the pontifical "Daily Telegraph" manner and chooses to do as he pleases. There is not much invitation needed nowadays. One cannot help listening. It is impossible—after 7 P.M.—to take a penny 'bus ride in any direction without hearing the band—one band or another. You cannot go to a seaside resort without hearing the band. At every theatre you hear it; even in this hot weather I defy anyone to go into Queen's Hall without hearing it. At Earl's Court the bands form one of the principal assets. On the whole the omnipresence of the band is a thing to be thankful for. It is not so long since a band was a rarity in London; and if, from a musical point of view, we are a little better than we were a little while ago it is owing to the advent of the band. It has come to the classes and to the masses. I am not yet grey-haired, but I can remember the time when a symphony could not be heard in London for months together—there was no orchestra to play it. In those days my editor once asked me to go and hear the band in Hyde Park. It played only (I think) on Sunday evenings. What an unhappy, miserable affair it was. You struggled through a crowd of half-a-million hooligans until you came to an enclosure where you paid a penny or something for a seat on which you sat down meaning to listen to the band. Listen? why use such a word? You found yourself there in the midst of a number of young ladies and younger gentlemen from drapers' shops; and these amiable personages had not come to listen. They had paid their pennies for peace and quiet. And there they cooed and chattered and it was only the most magnificent fortissimos that could be heard. In that enclosure in Hyde Park I sat one night for a solid half-hour and at the end of the time I went off. Not one single complete phrase had I heard; not a piece on the programme had I recognised. The band, in fact, existed mainly to enable fond lovers to converse without their neighbours overhearing.

How changed it all is. That used to happen, if I recollect rightly, once, or at most twice, a week. It happened only in Hyde Park. Now the bands play nightly in all the bigger open-spaces of London; and men, women and children crowd in their thousands to hear them. The other night the musical critic of this paper was turned out of the office by a justly infuriated office-boy merely because he had forgotten to post a letter or write an article or some such trifle; he sought to repose his disquieted spirit in the Embankment Gardens; and lo! a band was there. Apparently it plays every night of the week; but whether that is or is not the case, it plays very well, and what is more, the audience listens. During a good hour-and-a-half I heard only two kisses and a dozen whispers. Is amorousness dying out in our young people or is an intelligent liking

for music increasing? These are problems of the sort that I often put to myself but am utterly incapable of solving. But on the whole I have come to the conclusion that the English public is slowly learning that music is meant to be listened to. Even at the opera, they tell me, the occupants of the boxes are much improved in their manners; and when the retired butlerman and ephemeral South-African millionaire can be induced to behave with some approach to common decency there is hope for all. All the signs—or nearly all of them—are cheering. If we are ever to become a musical nation, we must learn first of all to listen to music and it appears we are learning the trick. I have observed it myself and friends of mine have noticed it in the outlying desert suburbs of London, which I have not the courage to visit. But nowhere is the change more noticeable than at the Promenade concerts. I wonder how many of my readers remember what they used to be in the old days at Covent Garden. The place was simply a gigantic combination of an ordinary drinking bar and Piccadilly Circus at midnight; a most beautiful soft movement might be played and yet the cackle and the jabber went on all the same. At that time it was hard to hear orchestral music in London and I used to spend a shilling cheerfully and spend a tedious evening for the sake of hearing something of Mozart or Beethoven; and when the piece was reached and I spread myself ready to get the shilling's worth I had come for there would be such an infernal babel and babble all round me that scarcely a note could be heard. Why on earth they had any music at all passes my understanding. Go to a Promenade at Queen's Hall to-day and you will observe the change. Even the standing crowd in the actual promenade stands quietly and listens to the band excepting in the lighter portions. When the light relief arrives, the audience regards it as something not worth worrying about and chatters and pays no attention. Aforetime it was only the light stuff that was hearkened to: Beethoven, Mozart and even Haydn got no attention, and Wagner was regarded as idiotic rubbish. To-day the best card for an entrepreneur to play is Wagner, and after him and Tchaikowsky come the three old classical, weather-worn men I have just mentioned—Beethoven, Mozart and Haydn. The public is taking Mr. Monckton's advice and listening to the band. The public is a slow-witted ass but it does at length learn things.

Of course the public that supports the Promenades is not the public that goes into the parks of a night; and yet I believe that if the park conductors would consider what has happened at the Promenades, they might do better for themselves by playing better music. Everyone grows tired of hearing the same tune played a million times. Now there are really only two or three music-hall tunes. They are called by all sorts of names, and occasionally a note or two is different; but generally speaking there is only one popular tune invented in five years and all the rest are more or less exact copies. The bandmaster, then, whose repertory consists of music-hall stuff is far more limited than he ordinarily thinks. He can put down the names of a dozen popular songs; but they are all the same: he is playing the same thing over and over again. It is my conviction that if he would leave all rubbish alone, his audience would be better pleased. The time has gone by when any fool could raise a laugh by confessing that he liked a good tune but couldn't stand "that damned classical stuff". Tchaikowsky is perhaps the greatest favourite to-day with the general public, but so far from being a classic his position is undecided, so that not even the youngest of us would venture to predict what it will be in a few years' time. I would like to believe that the common taste has improved and that the people have learnt to love the beautiful and good. But alas! they everlastingly go mad over the latest novelty and it is only when its million imitations have nauseated them that they turn to the perennially fresh stuff of the great masters. Consider the theatres and music-halls. Of course there is not a decent theatre band in London. Some of the conductors are quite good musicians, but what can they do with the few half-starved players at their disposal? A manager will spend hundreds of pounds on some silly female's frock and laugh at the

idea of spending as many shillings on his band. He says no one listens to the band and he is absolutely right. A man would indeed be a fool who listened to such bands. Yet in my theatre-going days I can remember that the better pieces were listened to while the congregation talked through the other things. At the music-halls the same fact may be observed. The common selection from the "Girl" musical comedy of the moment is not listened to; but when, for instance, Mr. Finck at the Palace Theatre plays something fine the crowd instead of bolting for the bars stays to listen. Of course Mr. Finck is an exceptionally good conductor; but if he played the usual silly stuff no one could tell whether he was good or bad. As for the park bandmasters, there is another point to be considered. The County Council, when it is not spending our money in ruining beautiful country districts with villainous electric-trams, gives a good deal for these park bands. It also, I suppose, pays for the gardening. It does not allow its gardener to pander to the most vulgar tastes: it makes him do his best. Why should the bandmaster be asked or even permitted to play the stuff he often does? Are the better class, who, after all, pay the piper, not only to have no right to call the tune, but in addition when they walk in their own park be compelled to hear tunes that are simply indecent?

Some day soon I shall have something to say about the constitution and working of the park bands; but the subject demands a whole article. In the meantime I take the liberty of observing that even in Australia people are learning to listen to the band. A lot of newspaper cuttings have reached me in which I see that Mr. G. W. L. Marshall Hall is drawing enormous audiences to hear programmes of quite the Queen's Hall type. Mr. Marshall Hall was formerly Ormonde professor of music in Melbourne University. In an evil hour he published a book of poems, and the wise authorities immediately came to the conclusion that he could be no good as far as music was concerned. So he had to resign and an Edinburgh gentleman, Mr. Petersen, an individual of the amiable, meandering type was appointed in his place. Mr. Marshall Hall had his own conservatoire which immediately drew all the musical folk of Melbourne, he continued his orchestral concerts, which are always packed; and Mr. Petersen continues his labours at the university, under the supervision of the wise authorities, and no one is a penny the worse or better.

JOHN F. RUNCIMAN.

FACIAL WIZARDRY.

FROM time to time, apparently at pure hazard, without law, without warning, suddenly you see in the face of the child the man. In a moment, again, the vigorous man of forty becomes the old man of eighty. The fresh face of the graceful child will take on for a moment the heavy features of the hard and sensual-looking woman: the young girl is transformed into the comfortable motherly matron. More uncanny still, the very infant sometimes for a second, in a flash, assumes the face of old age. Backwards, too, in the delightful elderly lady appears the girl, real, radiant: but she comes not suddenly; phantom-like she seems to rise slowly, faintly, out of the elderly face you see in the flesh, and then in a moment of time and for a moment she stands before you complete. The happy old man, full of merry memories, expands into the boy of twelve. All this, no doubt, sounds only like scenes from a pantomime or the commonplaces of the fairy books. It does: that is just the effect these appearances leave on those who have eyes to see them, the awesome feelings of children at the transformations of fairy worlds. It is hard to think them merely natural. Meditating on these strange sensations, one wonders whether they are not the origin of those familiar features of all folklore. Everywhere the wizard strikes children into old men and the good genius by a touch gives back youth to age. When suddenly, wholly unprepared, you see complete the full-grown man in the boy, or the smooth girl countenance shrink into the wrinkled elderly face, it is difficult not to conjure up some wholly external

agency, some person, who works the change from without. It is generally so sudden, so unprepared, so manifestly put on externally. We look about for a cause, for some one who did it. And we do not wonder that primitive men invented fays and wizards to fill the place of beings they felt must be there, but could not see. It is all natural enough, of course, in reality; we know all about everything now; we do not wonder now; we have put away such childishness; except just at the moment of the apparition, when our hair, if many of us told the truth, stands on end just as did the less knowing people's of earlier days. We do not believe in goblins; we have explained them away; but their ghosts revenge themselves by grinning at us from limbo: and we don't like their wraiths much more than our ancestors liked themselves. But the ghosts of goblins have no chance in the clear light; there is the difference. Once the eeriness is off us we become quite happy, quite brave, and we insult the imps with a hardihood our forefathers could never command. So if for the moment the touch of a fairy wand seems necessary, we soon see clear and understand that these strange metamorphoses are but a freak of perfectly natural movements of the face. If we could trace exactly the course of physical growth and decay on the features and make a map of the inevitable writing of the wrinkles, we could draw from the face of the child the face of the man, and the old man, with something very near precision; though the uncertainty of expression would prevent a picture to the very life. And in fact many of the lines of youth and age are scientifically traceable, while we all recognise them by instinct. And no doubt what happens is simply that from time to time the play of the face or some feature of the face cuts deep one or more of the dominant age-wrinkles, or the aged countenance is so moved as to smooth one out. And then we do the rest ourselves. We have a piece of the puzzle, a bone in a skeleton: a few pieces are quite enough; the rest is inference and imagination. We mentally work it out, though we seem to see the whole instantaneously. Why then can it not be done intentionally? Up to a point it can be. The play-actor knows that. He can make you up as you will be when you are old with considerable probability: but—it is a very different thing indeed from what we have been pondering. It is mechanical, and the other, however natural, is not mechanical. The *θεῖον τι*, the divine something, comes in after all.

Perhaps we should have considered the sceptic; you do not believe in these wondrous transformations? You have never seen one? And after all what can we say to that? Only that we have: and everyone that is fond of observing faces must have done so too, often. An unobservant person might easily miss such facial phenomena, for they come unexpected and are gone as quickly. But anyone who has seen the young face suddenly take on the old face, a very revelation of the future, will not forget it. It is interesting, but it is rather awesome, this sudden passage of time. Fortunately one cannot catch such a transformation on his own face. The chances of looking in the glass at the psychological moment are too small for that.

GARDEN SPICES.

IS it not absurd that we should have no noun to distinguish the atmosphere of a rose garden from that of a gas-works? The smell of a field which the Lord hath blessed is, as far as language can help us, the same as the smell of one just treated with "London manure". If we try the synonyms we make matters no better: the American "odor" has a dreadful sham classic air; and if we substitute "scent" or "perfume" we touch associations at once subtly and fulsomely unclean. No man of science, apparently, has ever taken the trouble to classify the world of smells and to tell us, after the analogy of noise and music in the realm of sound, what are scents, and what ought to bear the good old names (still available behind our squeamish refinement) of stench and stink. It seems as though modern conditions were leading to a general disuse of the nostrils' function: nine men out of ten appear to feel no more of discomfort from the sulphurous

fumes and cab-horse breezes of a railway terminus than they do of pleasure in the breath of trodden thyme or clover in the sun. Some blunting of the olfactory is perhaps necessary, if we are to live on modern terms; but any man who can afford to cultivate the sense will find that its two poles recede in proportion as it is exercised; the enjoyment of the pure and fine essences deepens together with the loathing of every form of stench. There is room for a good deal of education here, but probably a really fine nose is as much a birth-gift as an accurate ear for tune or time. Anyone who has improved a naturally fine organ by due practice will be likely to shrink from man's contrivances of sweet savours almost more restively than he does from the manufacture of foul ones: the lilac and heliotrope which one buys in bottles have that whiff of crudeness and exaggeration which is meretricious in an accurate sense. The difference between the scents of nature and art offers some interesting points of inquiry: whether, for instance, there are not quick smells and dead ones ("his essences turn'd the live air sick") and whether, following out Aristotle's distinction between incense and unguents, we may not conjecture that burning somehow vivifies an aroma in itself inert and, so to say—for the moral analogies swarm about the notion—makes the offering clean. In the day when our altars take the form of dust-destructors and mill-stalks, this point perhaps need not be laboured.

The distinction between natural and artificial scents can be carried so far by a fastidious nostril that even the smells of garden-flowers may at times seem to lack a keenness and purity found in the wild growths, and to replace a balsamic energy, tonic and enlivening, by a mere sugary electuary, sleepy, if not narcotic. The wet wind off mountain bracken can at some seasons put us out of conceit with our lavender hedges; a dog-rose on the briar in June has a thin purity beside which even the old Damask seems luscious to a fault. But this is easily pushed too far, if it be not hypercritical to begin with; and most men will do well to return thanks for a garden to walk in and a nose to enjoy its spices at proper hours. Something depends, too, upon the way of smelling: wakeful receptiveness is in general better than an active smelling-to. The breath of most flowers is best at a certain distance; there is often a secondary or inner smell, like the whiff of cabbage which lurks in the heart of all the stock and wallflower tribe, repaying a too greedy exploration of their sweets. In some sorts, such as mathiola and mignonette, the true character is only to be got from a good-sized bed of the flowers, not less than four or five yards off and sometimes as much as thirty, under proper conditions of evening cool and wandering airs. As a rule, Bacon's judgment holds good that "the breath of flowers is far sweeter in the air (where it comes and goes like the warbling of music) than in the hand": there are qualities of harmony and contrast only to be enjoyed in the mingled breath of full garden-borders; but there should be individual acquaintance too. Some of the most delicate scents are hardly perceptible without a close approach: the smell of the pansy—a sort of fairy quintessence or sublimated soul of the violet—seems unknown to the many. Christmas rose and crocus and snowdrop have their own close-kept characters, which become an inextricable part of the spring to everyone who has learned their charm. To a mind with any gift of association every season of the year has its proper spice; perhaps it would not be too much to say (in the growing-time, at least) every week. The broader differences of the calendar—March violets from July lilies—almost anyone could tell; but a learned nose will go far deeper, and will distinguish the half-grudged cinnamon-waft of the earlier daffodils from the lavish clove of the pheasant's-eye. The punctual harmony of iris and lupin, the entirely individual notes of calycanthus, mock-orange or jonquil, the dry full-summer honey of sunflower and scabious might enable a blind gardener to bring his reckoning right within a matter of days. There are scents that mark hours as well as days: not only does the dew under a midsummer moon open the hearts of some day-flowers—sweetbriar and honeysuckle, for instance—as nothing else can; but there is a tribe of true nocturnals, such as the night-stock and nicotiana, which refuse a

grain of incense to the sun, but fill the dark with heavy balm.

The amateur of garden-scents will of course have his peculiar likes and dislikes, and that not only in the things, such as lilies or gorse, upon which mankind are divided. He will perhaps attach irrational pleasure to odours in themselves nugatory or even harsh—the walnut-smell of perennial phlox or the strong reek of the crown imperial pushing through the wet mould in spring; he may challenge the dictum of Joubert that the tulip has no soul. He will know the leaf-scented plants, even those that must be pinched before they yield their quality; the scentless, or almost scentless flowers—for even a montbretia is perhaps not absolutely without the gift; the class, small but strenuous, of the blossoms of ill breath, the gaseous effluvium of the crimson flax and the *cenothera*, and the fume of some of the *veronicas*, with which there is no parleying. And besides all these separate notes of the scale, he will recognise an undertone or ground-bass beneath the concert, whether it be the air from warm hayfields and elder-hedges, or from a hillside aflame with gorse, or perhaps best of all, the smell of a grove of old firs, which together with the murmur of their boughs passes half-felt into the lives that move beneath them. It is to be hoped, as it is very probable, that the enjoyment of good smells will always escape reduction to the rigid forms of science. Safe from such severities as the counterpoint and perspective rules which give an uneasy pride to the realms of sound and sight, the gift of smelling may remain a light refection for all those who hold the intensive theory of life, who are always trying to keep back the mist of habit and haste and one's own importance incessantly growing to blur and smother the infinite variety of the sensible world. Not only is there no science of the good smells, but they have hardly been touched on, except scatteringly, in literature. A small handbook on garden scents* recently published seems to be only the third (apart from trade monographs on perfumery, &c.) that has ever dealt with the subject on its merits. It contains a very complete list of fragrant plants, a sweepingly comprehensive bibliography, and much discursive information not only about gardens but such cognate things as tea-tasters and tea-making, and the action of essential oils on bacteria. Much more might have been done with quotations from old authors in the way of that delightful proposal of Evelyn here given, that all low ground circumjacent to London should be planted with sweetbriar, jessamine, syringa, roses, and above all rosemary, and with pinks, gillyflowers, cowslips, lilies, musk, thyme, and marjoram, so that "the whole city would be sensible of the sweet varieties of the perfumes as well as of the most delightful and pleasant places of recreation for the inhabitants", and Londoners might have a happier fate than to be "pursued and haunted by that infernal smook."

BRIDGE.

THE PLAY OF THE THIRD HAND IN A NO TRUMP GAME.

THERE is one golden rule laid down for the guidance of the third player against a No Trump declaration, and that is, always to return his partner's original lead, unless the ultimate establishment and bringing in of that suit is obviously hopeless. It will frequently happen that the third player has a stronger suit than the one originally opened, and that it would have been far better if he had had the opening lead, but he did not have it. His partner had to open the game, he has opened it with his best suit, and the attack must be continued in that suit, unless the cards exposed in dummy are such as to render it manifestly fatal to do so. There are certain timorous players who will not return their partner's suit, when they have won the first trick with the king or queen, because they see the ace in the dummy hand. They will say afterwards, when the game has probably been lost through their bad play, "I did not like to return your suit up to the

ace", but why not? An ace is by no means a bad card to lead up to—rather the reverse. The ace is bound to make, and, by returning the suit at once, the third player gives his partner a fine chance of utilising any tenace which he may hold, without helping his opponents in any way. The effect of opening some other suit, up to weakness in the dummy, is only to take a card of entry out of his partner's hand, and those precious cards of entry—there are not likely to be many of them—are so invaluable that they should never be lightly sacrificed.

It is a very strong measure for the third hand to abandon his partner's suit, and to open his own. By so doing, he is practically saying to his partner, "Give up your suit altogether and play for mine, it is by far the stronger of the two". There are occasions when it is right to change the suit, as for instance, when the third player holds a suit of king, queen, knave to five, which will be established with the loss of only one trick, whereas the leader's suit will take two more rounds to establish, but these occasions are few and far between, and are only the exceptions which prove the rule. The general rule is, that it is a fatal policy for the two defenders to have disjointed interests by each playing for his own suit.

It will occasionally happen that the dummy puts down such a powerful hand as to render it patent to the third player that the game must be lost unless his partner holds one or more named cards. When this is the case, he should play for that card, or those cards, being in his partner's hand, as though he had seen them there, regardless of the fact that an extra trick may be lost by so doing. Saving the game, not saving one or two tricks, is the object to be played for.

The following hand, which occurred in actual play, is a very illustrative instance of this. A B were partners against Y Z. The score was love-all. A dealt and left it to B, who declared No Trumps. Y led the knave of hearts, and B's and Z's hands were as follows:—

	Y		
A		B	
(dealer)		(dummy)	
	Z		

Hearts—King, queen.
Diamonds—Queen.
Clubs—Ace, king, queen,
knave, 7, 4.
Spades—Ace, 9, 8, 5.

Hearts—Ace, 8, 3.
Diamonds—King, 10, 9, 8.
Clubs—9, 7, 6.
Spades—Knave, 10, 4.

Z won the first trick with the ace of hearts, and he then had to consider how the game was to be saved. It was at once obvious that his partner must hold the ace of diamonds, otherwise the game was lost, six tricks in clubs, one in hearts, one in diamonds, and one in spades—three by cards. If he returned the heart, that suit was at once established, but it was then necessary for his partner to hold the king of spades in addition to the ace of diamonds. After a moment's hesitation, he led the king of diamonds, not a small one, as, in that case, his partner must have the knave as well as the ace to save the game. It came off to perfection. The dealer held knave and three other diamonds, and the king, queen of spades, and any other lead than the king of diamonds must have lost at least five by cards. As it was, they made the ace of hearts and four diamonds and saved the game. This is not quoted as any great coup, but just as an instance of placing a high card in the partner's hand, and playing as though it were marked there, when it was absolutely necessary for it to be there in order to save the game. An inferior player would not have played it in that way, but would probably have returned the heart, and would then have said to his partner, after the game was lost, "If I had only known that you had the ace of diamonds, I could have saved that game". He could not possibly have known it, but he ought to have recognised that the game was lost unless it was there, and to have played as though he did know it.

At first sight it appears a very deadly game for the third player to return his partner's suit up to a major tenace, or two winning cards, in dummy, but to do so is often the lesser of two evils. Say that the leader

* "The Book of the Scented Garden." By F. W. Burbidge. London: Lane. 1905. 2s. 6d. net.

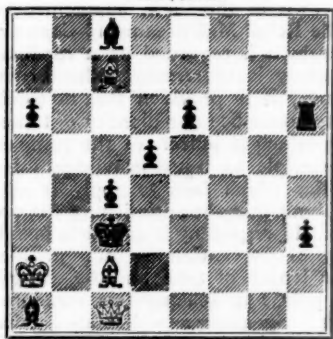
has opened with a small heart, the third hand, holding queen and two small ones, wins with the queen, leaving ace and knave in dummy. If he returns the suit, he is leading up to a certain tenace over his partner's king, but the tenace is there whatever he does. If he does not lead the suit, the dealer will do so as soon as he gets in, and the ace and knave will win all the same, so that he is really giving away nothing by returning the suit. It is far better to do this than to open a fresh suit at random.

One of the strongest axioms of bridge is that every fresh suit opened by the opponents of the declarer of No Trumps is an enormous disadvantage to them. Where the attack is first begun, there it should be continued, unless the result of doing so will obviously be fatal.

CHESS.

PROBLEM 37. By Dr. GOLD and O. WURZBURG.

White 4 pieces.



Black 9 pieces.

White to mate in three moves.

("Lasker's Chess Magazine.")

Solutions to above will be duly acknowledged.

KEY TO PROBLEM 35: 1. B-B3.

KEY TO PROBLEM 36: 1. Q-KR2.

Properly to appreciate games played in first-class tournaments it is as necessary to know the surrounding circumstances as it is to know the conditions under which different scores are made at cricket. The players of the following game commenced the second half of the Championship Tournament at Southport, when their only prospect of ultimately occupying a high position depended upon a long series of successes. To win or to lose was therefore their motto, drawing was no use. With caution cast away, the game was very much admired by a crowd which is not concerned with the soundness of an idea so long as it has an appearance of brilliancy.

RUSSIAN DEFENCE.

White	Black	White	Black
Gunston	A. J. Mackenzie	Gunston	A. J. Mackenzie
1. P-K4	P-K4	6. P x P e.p.	Kt x QP
2. Kt-KB3	Kt-KB3	7. B-Q3	Kt-B3
3. P-Q4	P x P	8. Q-KB4	B-K2
4. P-K5	Kt-K5	9. Kt-B3	B-K3
5. Q x P	P-Q4	10. B-K3	P-QR3

Black is not justified in marking time in the face of white's superior development. B-B3 seems preferable. Besides attacking the QKt and threatening to compromise the white queen's pawns, it offers some scope for the manipulation of one of the knights via K2 to Kt3. Indeed B-B3 looks so strong that it might have been better to have anticipated it by playing 10. B-Q2 instead of B-K3, a slower though sounder move.

11. Castles QR Castles

Black has merely been waiting for white to castle with a determination to follow suit on the other side. Otherwise he might have saved time by castling on the last move.

12. P-KR4 Q-B1 13. P-KKt4 B x KtP

If black can resist the ensuing attack it would be some sort of triumph for the chess iconoclast. Most players

ignore the offer of such pawns without examination. P-B4 is more promising as a defence and less risky.

14. QR-Kt1 B-B4.

If the bishop moves elsewhere, R x P ch wins at once.

15. Q-Kt3 P-KKt3 17. P x P B x P (Kt6)

16. P-R5 B x B

This leaves black with a lost game as the sequel shows. Instead of holding on to the piece, black ought to have been content to remain with a pawn to the good and a little additional time to organise a defence. For instance 17. . . BP x P, 18. P x B (necessary), R-B2 followed by B-B3 or R-Kt2 according to circumstances, looks like warding off all attack, with certain chances of winning should it arrive at an ending. In any case black's game is difficult; but the sort which Burn or Marshall would revel in and wriggle through.

18. Q-R2 K-Kt2

19. Kt-Q5 R-R1

20. Kt x B Kt x Kt

21. Q-K5 ch K-Kt1

22. B-Q4 K-B1

23. Q x R ch Kt-Kt1

24. R x B RP x R

25. Q x Kt ch K-K2

26. R-K1 ch Resigns

CORRESPONDENCE.

DANGERS OF MOTORING.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

Felpham, 22 August, 1905.

SIR,—Your article on "Motor Touring" in the SATURDAY REVIEW for 19 August is in every way excellent from the point of view of the motorist, but will scarcely satisfy the views of the much larger class who do not use these machines, and regard them with well-founded dislike. After the introduction of the writer giving "the ideal of motoring" and excellent reasons why drivers should use all caution and consideration for the comfort and safety of the general public, he concludes his views on the evils of excessive speed by the remark that, with the rules he lays down, "you will run at your twenty miles an hour smoothly and easily". Yes! twenty miles an hour may be all very well for the motorist, but what about the foot and horse traveller? Experience has shown that this is a speed carrying in its train peril to life and limb, loss and discomfort to the community, and until the legal speed limit is reduced by one-half its present standard it will continue to be a source of danger and loss. I never could understand why a rate of speed should be legalised for motor-cars, for which public roads were never intended, twice as great as that permitted to horses and carriages for which the roads were specially constructed. Every day's papers contain paragraphs with accounts of motor-car accidents; and as specimens I venture to copy the following taken from the "Standard" of two successive days, namely 21st and 22nd inst., as illustrating some of the varieties of loss and danger due to the speed at which the machines are driven. I confine myself to the following:

1. Loss of life and personal injury:

FATAL MOTOR-CAR ACCIDENT.

(From our Correspondent.)

Newport, 20 August.

An automobile accident, attended by a fatal result in one case, and severe injuries to several other persons, has occurred near here. Mr. Vinson Walsh, the son of Mr. Thomas Walsh, was killed, whilst the injured were his sister, Miss Evelyn Walsh, who had her thigh broken; Mrs. James Kernochan, Mr. Harry Oelrichs, and Mr. Herbert Pell, jun.

Mr. Vinson Walsh, who was acting as driver, was returning from the Chabake Club. The car was going down hill at a great speed, and when approaching a bridge near Eastern Point a tyre burst. The machine swerved, and crashed through the railings into the creek, where it turned a complete somersault, and fell upon its occupants.

2. Penalties for excessive speed:

For driving motor-cars in the Alnwick district at a rate exceeding twenty miles an hour, the Alnwick magistrates on Saturday inflicted penalties of £5 and costs upon Captain John Lyson, Wigan, 13th Hussars; William Walters, Falldon Hall, Alnwick; Charles Ford, Alnwick, and Harry Kearsley, Sharrow-cross, Ripon; £3 and costs on Robert Wallis,

Wallsend, for riding a motor cycle at a speed exceeding twenty miles an hour, and fines of £3 and costs were inflicted on the Rev. Robert Formby and the Rev. William Southworth.

3. Injury to property :

FARMERS AND MOTOR-CARS.

At a meeting of the Lancashire Farmers' Association, at Preston, on Saturday, a resolution was carried that the whole question of the use of the highway by motor vehicles requires the early attention of Parliament. One speaker said that nothing would grow on the land within a hundred yards of the road. The hedges were white with dust thrown up by motor-cars, the grass full of it, and the grain crops covered with it.

4. Injury to driver of motor, and valuable horses :

SINGULAR ACCIDENT.

MOTOR-CAR RUNS INTO A HUNTING STUD.

The hunting stud of Lord Willoughby de Broke, Master of the Warwickshire Hounds, were returning to the stables at Kineton yesterday morning when a motor-car ran into the horses, causing them to stampede. The car overturned, severely injuring the driver, Mr. Barnard, who, with the other occupant of the car, Mr. C. Parnell, of Porlock, Somerset, is visiting Warmington. Several grooms, who were leading the horses, were cut and bruised. There were thirty-seven horses, and the frightened animals, entirely out of control, dashed away in various directions. Many of them made for the stables at Kineton, and the others were captured after considerable trouble. The sick bay at Lord Willoughby's stable is full of injured hunters.

The above are two specimens from two consecutive numbers of the "Standard," which also include an accident to Queen Margherita while motoring to Italy.

The present futile regulations regarding this new source of public danger require considerable alteration in the direction both of speed limit and heavier penalties for breach of the law. The feeling of exasperation which pervades the public is well known amongst those who have conversed with their friends. It may be presumed that the police authorities are gathering evidence to lay before the Royal Commission which is about to hold its sittings, but individuals would do well to be prepared to supplement this evidence from personal observation and experience. At present the motoring minority are successful in overriding the opinion and wishes of the majority regarding the speed at which these vehicles are driven, and we look forward to Parliament for protection against a serious public danger.

I am, Sir,

Your obedient servant,
EDWARD HULL, LL.D.

ALIEN IMMIGRATION.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

21 August, 1905.

SIR,—Mr. Claude Hay refers to your note respecting the chances of the Aliens Bill effecting the objects of its promoters as unduly pessimistic, but the results of the working of the Immigration Laws of the United States do not incline to optimism, barely 1 per cent. of the immigrants being excluded during the year ending June 1903. The futility of these enactments must surely be recognised when the United States Immigration Commissioner recommends the medical examination of immigrants at the port of embarkation by American medical officers owing to the "amazing pertinacity of some steamship companies in transporting diseased persons in defiance of the laws". It is a matter for regret that we have no adequate knowledge of and therefore cannot accurately estimate the proportion of employes, other than native, in various occupations. No indication is given by the Census Returns; the methods of classification adopted do not distinguish between employed and unemployed members of the industrial classes; information respecting the proportion of foreigners among the former class would be invaluable. It is possible for hundreds of aliens to arrive, become naturalised, and be classified as British subjects in the interval between publication, the Jewish press openly requesting their co-religionists to become naturalised at the earliest possible moment. The official statistics supposed to represent the conditions of employment are also very inadequate, being

obtained, apart from Employers' Associations, from Trade-union officials. The "Labour Gazette", the organ of the Labour Department of the Board of Trade, seriously publishes information from Trade-union sources and considers such intelligence an indication of the state of the Labour market. May I point out to the officials of this anachronous Department that the aggregate of Trade-unionists represents only 13.08 per cent. of the working classes? We also perceive the explanation of the misologist attitude of the leaders of organised labour when we remember that the competition of the alien immigrant principally affects unorganised workers. The late Lord Macaulay laid it down that the business of a Government was to protect the lives and property of the people whose interests have been committed to its care; that is a plain and simple proposition and not difficult of comprehension to the average mind. That this fundamental maxim had not become wholly evanescent in this degenerate age remained obvious when the Crown in the new supplementary charter granted to the Royal Mail Steamship Company inserted clauses whereby it is regarded as a cardinal principle that the company is to remain under British control, and accordingly it is provided that no foreigner shall be qualified to hold office as a director or to be employed as one of the principal officers of the company. If we grant this principle as a just proviso in this case, it is lopsided justice which fails to apply it all round. I venture to submit that the optimism of the promoters of the Aliens Bill in regarding it as a first instalment of a larger policy of prevention is not justified, having regard to the length of time and the energy expended by the body politic in placing this measure upon the Statute Book. Speaking as a displaced native worker, one cannot view with equanimity the vista of years and the pressure yet to be exerted before the Executive in the National Assembly anticipate the ultimate trend of this puny measure and prohibit any further addition to our congested labour market.

I am, Sir, your obedient servant,
H. G. HILLS.

THE DISCUSSION ON ARMY MATTERS.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

SIR,—May I trespass on your space to say how heartily I agree with your correspondent Col. Hime, when he advocates conscription as a cure for all difficulties connected with Army Reform? The trouble seems to be greatly a lack of interest on the part of the public and this any system of universal service would put an end to. I am sure that our faint-hearted leaders know as well as anyone that this is the true answer to the question, but for fear of losing a few votes they will not say so bravely and openly as Lord Roberts has just done. I do not believe, however, that there is as strong a feeling in the country against universal training to arms as its opponents appear to think. Since becoming a member of the National Service League, which urges universal training of some sort on the public, I have spoken to many people on the subject and have found, together with a certain indifference, no great objection to the principle of conscription though everyone has his pet plan as to the details.

Yours obediently,
A MEMBER OF THE NATIONAL SERVICE LEAGUE.

CANADA AND ENGLAND.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

Sherbrooke, Canada.

SIR,—It is amusing to hear of Englishmen asking whether Canada desires to be admitted into the United States. Does a child who has been throwing stones through his mother's window-panes wish to be handed over to an athletic schoolmaster?

It is of immense importance to England that Canada should aim at developing herself as an agricultural country.

But the one course that public men in Canada are agreed upon is the setting up of wretched little manufacturing towns, producing trashy imitations of English

cloth, hardware, &c. Except as a person who must pay three times their value for inferior "dry goods", the Canadian politician cares as little for the Canadian farmer as he does for the British taxpayer, who alone makes possible the existence of Canada in its present corrupt political form, by keeping up the British Navy.

Yours obediently,

A DISINTERESTED OBSERVER.

A SEASIDE HOTEL FOR WORKING PEOPLE.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

16 Somerset Terrace, Upper Woburn Place, W.C.

SIR,—Will you allow me to appeal to your readers through you for interest and support for the Green Lady Hostel at Littlehampton, a holiday hotel for city working people? The council includes, among others all deeply concerned and intimate with its objects, such well-known and, in some respects, diverse public workers as Archdeacon Wilberforce, Canons Barnett and Scott-Holland, the Revs. Silvester Horne and Dr. Paton. The hostel, with space for fifty-two visitors, stands in its own grounds near sea and river. Its object may be briefly stated as that of providing for city boys and girls, either in clubs or parties or alone, and for adult working people in families or individually, a respite which all these so sorely need from work which is often very exacting and generally under very enervating conditions. This respite the hostel provides at 10s. a week per head and last summer 513 guests were received. It is thought that the hostel's plan is unique and likely to lead to others being established since leaders of boys' and girls' clubs and others find in it the solution of a very real want. The hostel would it is hoped be self-supporting, as the committee feel that it ought to be, if it could once be made rent free and a sum of £500 would suffice to make it so. I should be most grateful for any contributions.

Yours faithfully,

JOHN H. GREENHALGH
(Hon. Treasurer).

"THE MISANTHROPE" ON THE STAGE.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

Union Club, New York, 14 August, 1905.

SIR,—Mr. Hilaire Belloc in the course of an article in your issue of 3 June asks the question: "Why can we not have pure comedy? Why would the 'Misanthrope' for example be a certain failure? That it would be a failure I at once admit" &c. It will doubtless be of interest to Mr. Belloc to learn that Molière's comedy was produced by Richard Mansfield in this country last winter, and that the production met with success.

I am, &c.

A. E. GALLATIN.

THE WHISTLER PICTURE IN THE NATIONAL GALLERY.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

14 Buckingham Street, Strand, W.C.,
August 22, 1905.

SIR,—To the picture by Whistler, placed in the National Gallery about a fortnight ago, which is hung upon a shocking red screen, in full light, has been affixed a line of description, making four statements, three of which are absolutely incorrect.

1st. The title of the picture is not "Old Battersea Bridge".

2nd. The artist's name is misspelled.

3rd. Whistler did not belong to the British School.

Not only is it unpardonable that the authorities at the National Gallery should be allowed to perpetrate such ridiculous blunders, but it is equally amazing that no British critics have convicted them. No mention save a flippant one of the "British School" have I seen, but I venture to say that if a dubious work by some cock-eyed primitive had been placed in the Gallery, and there had been any chance to question anything about it, the daily, weekly and monthly journals would have immediately been full of scientifically critical attributions, discoveries and disquisitions, all different, all contradictory, but all proving the in-

fallibility of the critics on a subject which it is impossible for them ever to know anything positive about. But in the case of an authenticated modern picture properly described and catalogued by the artist, outrageous blunders and ridiculous misstatements can be made by the National authorities and not a protest is raised. Either therefore the critics of this country do not visit the British Rooms of the National Gallery, or do not know anything about what they see when they go there. Either alternative is pitiable but a fact.

I am yours,

JOSEPH PENNELL.

OUR ART GUIDES.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

12 August, 1905.

SIR,—Misled by the article on Major John Scott, afterwards Scott-Waring, in the "Dictionary of National Biography" (li. 46-7), though the mistake is noted in the volume of errata, I wrongly named Elizabeth Blackrie as the Major's second wife, whereas she was his first, and she died in 1796. His second wife, the subject of Russell's picture, was Maria, daughter and heiress of Jacob Hughes of Cashel, and as the Major took the additional surname of Waring in 1798 she would of course be known as Mrs. Scott-Waring. She was an actress, it is true, but the epigram was uttered by Sheridan on the third wife—an actress known as Mrs. Esten—whom the Major married in 1812. She had been the mistress of Douglas, Duke of Hamilton, and her daughter by him became in 1820 the wife of Henry Robert, third Lord Rossmore of Monaghan. The Reads come of course from the well-dowered daughter of Surgeon-General Blackrie, whose portrait (as the Rev. Compton Reade tells me) was at Ipsden, as also hers in a miniature only. As the Major descended from the Wycherleys it was only natural that both he and his grandson, Charles Reade, should have a passion for the stage.

The whereabouts of Russell's picture remained unknown until four or five years ago, when (as another correspondent writes) it turned up in Christie's sale-room and was bought for a very small sum by Mr. Hodgkins, the Bond Street dealer, who placed it in his window and asked £800 for it. The inevitable American ultimately secured it. Mrs. Scott-Waring died suddenly 3 February, 1812, and a few months after the Major made his third marriage.

While on the subject of the rightful identification of portraits may I point out that the lady whose picture appears at page 74 of the Life of "John Russell, R.A." (1894) as "Mrs. Topham", 1791, was in fact Mrs. Mary Wells (née Davies), the well-known actress and beauty, who lived with Major Edward Topham (of "The World"), and had children by him, but was subsequently abandoned for another divinity? Russell had likewise portrayed her as Maud in O'Keefe's play of "Peeping Tom", a part which she created. Both "Mrs. Topham" and Mrs. Wells are treated of as totally different personages in Mr. Williamson's compilation.

Yours, &c.

GORDON GOODWIN.

THE REVERSED SVASTIKA.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

Deesa, Gujarat, India,
1 August, 1905.

SIR,—In your review of "Lhasa and its Mysteries" in your issue of 8 July, you quote Dr. Waddell's statement that "the Svastika in the reverse way, that is, with the feet going not in the diurnal course of the sun, but in the opposite direction . . . is regarded by Lamas as wicked".

I have in my possession an old bronze statue of Budha, brought from China, with the Svastika engraved on the breast in the form described above; while in India, among the Hindus, the two forms are used indifferently.

It would be interesting to know what is Dr. Waddell's authority for stating that the "left-handed" Svastika is uncanonical.

Your obedient servant,

G. HUTCHISON.

REVIEWS.

ERNEST RENAN.

"Ernest Renan." By William Barry. London: Hodder and Stoughton. 1905. 3s. 6d.

ONE of the most interesting and important chapters of modern Church History is that which recalls the efforts made by some of the most brilliant Frenchmen of the nineteenth century to commend the Gallican Church to the changing ideas of their fellow-countrymen and to remove the unpopularity under which the French clergy were suffering. The Concordat of 1817 bound the Church with iron fetters to the State and the foolish absolutism of Charles X. threatened to engulf the Church in the political catastrophe which every enlightened Frenchman foresaw. Its leaders, Lamennais, Gerbert, Lacordaire and Montalembert believed that Catholicism was compatible with liberty of worship and liberty of religious teaching and in vain strove to accommodate the teaching of the Church to the expanding ideas of the century. There was to be no surrender of the faith but all would be obedient to the irresistible power of revealed truth. Great as the efforts they made certainly were, and noble and brilliant as were these enthusiasts, one by one they surrendered to the rigid and changeless system of the Roman Church or fell away into doubt and discontent and open denial of the faith. What would have happened if the Church had met them half way, if it had used that *souplesse* and *habileté* of which Cardinal Maffei spake to the consternation of the simple *l'abbé Ternisien*, if they had been taken in hand and used for the good of the Church as Innocent III. welcomed and enlisted the power and the enthusiasm of S. Dominic and S. Francis? May we not hazard the opinion that to-day the Church in France would not have found itself confronted by so many bitter foes among its own countrymen? It is certain that Ernest Renan would not have become the champion opponent of Christianity in Europe. For Ernest Renan's quarrel with the Church was not a mere episode in his life. It was a breach which left indelible traces on his character and gave a tone and colour to everything which he did and though the language he used in reference to the Christian religion seemed to prove a complete loss of faith he was never able to throw off entirely the sentiment of Christianity. To the end of his life he felt more or less that attraction which the Church had formerly exerted over him and his bold and outrageous negation often gave evidence of an influence he could not destroy. Listen to him writing from Tréguier in 1847 that Christianity was dead and well dead and nothing could be made of it and yet when in 1864 he revisited Palestine and the tomb of his sister Henriette at Byblos, at his own request mass was celebrated on her behalf in the neighbouring chapel by a Maronite priest according to the ancient Syrian rite.

The circumstances of his early life help to explain the position. A true Breton, gloomy in his earlier years and always imaginative, with a jocularly inherited from a Gascon mother, he was extremely poor and for his early education was indebted to the kindness of the parish priests at Tréguier. At S. Sulpice the discipline and the routine of study which seemed to offer no scope to his expanding mind were irksome. He wanted freedom to think for himself and he found all arranged formally and unscientifically. He took things seriously and could not enter into the social amusements of his brother Seminarists. With the Celtic love for sadness he loathed Béranger. "Let us remember," he said, "that sadness alone is the mother of great things". So with his ambition and his insatiable thirst for knowledge, misunderstood and misunderstanding, he took off his soutane in 1845 and left S. Sulpice and enrolled himself amongst the bitterest foes of the Catholic Church. Never was a Church less prepared to meet such a crisis as the Church in France in 1845. Of biblical studies it had no grasp. Philosophy had become a mere string of empty formulæ. It had no knowledge of what was going on in other churches and religious bodies. "I did hope," said Renan, "that when I had gone round the circle of doubt I should

have come back to the point from which I started. I have lost that expectation altogether". There was no desire prompted by baser reasons to escape the discipline of himself. He was unlike many of his talented confrères of his age. As a contrast to Alfred de Musset he was strictly moral, and the claim he made and the example he set are being well followed by Huysmans and Bourget. To what then does Renan owe his wide popularity? He was no erudite theologian nor a particularly distinguished orientalist. All his writings have long ago been superseded. His influence no doubt is due to the charm of his literary style and to his hostility to an unpopular Church. That a Seminarist should have written the "*Vie de Jésus*" lashed into fury all the forces of the Gallican Church and filled with exultation the growing infidelity of Paris. His "*Vie de Jésus*", "*Les Apôtres*" and "*S. Paul*" are full of calm assumption, and an unwarranted arrangement of events which no one would think of reading, were he not charmed with the style in which Renan skilfully relates his theories. It is said that he made the Gospels a French classic, for until his "*Vie de Jésus*" had appeared many of the French clergy had no idea of the interest which attached to the Gospel narrative. Yet surely he was a *prêtre manqué*. Unlike Gibbon he never deals irreverently with the saints and martyrs. In his "*Antichrist*" he speaks in scathing terms of the monstrous being (Nero) who is the embodiment of evil. "More than ever am I convinced", wrote he at the time, "that religion is not a self-inflicted deception, that it answers to an object outside of us, and that he who obeys its inspiration is well guided". As against gnostics and early heretics he is a staunch advocate of the Catholic Church, and has a tender place in his heart for Rome. True, he says, authority is founded on the commonplace, but bishops are preferable to epileptics (Montanists) and in the Roman See bishops had a centre on which they could always fall back. But he was not to be tempted to return and at times it seems almost as if he was trying to justify to others what he could not justify to himself—that position of hostility which wounded and irritated. In the excellent sketch of his life which Dr. Barry has given us we see the man as he appears to a Church which can now forgive. Dr. Barry would have us compare Renan with his contemporary Cardinal Newman, but the loss to the two Churches was not the same. Newman left the Anglican communion because he thought it was explaining away that which was fundamental to the Christian faith, while Renan denounced Christianity because in the Roman communion there seemed no place whatever for freedom of thought. While *l'abbé Loisy* still contends for that which was denied to Renan one can only hope that the lessons taught by Renan's life may avail for the furtherance of the faith. On 2 October 1892 that great intellect went down in peace and in absolute negation. Will that tragedy have no influence? Was he not a victim?

NAVAL FIGHTING INSTRUCTIONS.

"Fighting Instructions 1530 to 1816." Edited by Julian S. Corbett. Printed for the Navy Records Society. 1905.

THE inauguration of a war course for senior officers at Greenwich was a practical recognition that the study of strategy, tactics, and naval history had been too long neglected. Mr. Corbett has already done much to stimulate interest in the seaman's art, and his latest book is certain to give a fresh impetus to the revival of investigation of the immutable laws which underlie naval history. Admiral Custance enters a plea in the *Naval Annual* of the present year for a more careful study of tactics, advancing much the same argument as the late Admiral Colomb, who expressed his conviction that the laws which govern war upon the sea had not been abrogated by the advent of steel ships, armour, breech-loading guns and torpedoes. At the conclusion of the Spanish-American war Admiral Colomb was able to add a preface to the third edition of his book on "*Naval Warfare*" in which he said, "Whatever rules can

be deduced from the operations of naval warfare when it was conducted in reliance upon the propulsive power of the wind are shown by this latest of steam wars to be much less subject to variation than was the case in former days". The Russo-Japanese experience does but emphasise the sentence quoted. The importance therefore of "The Fighting Instructions" under which the wars of the past were fought cannot be gainsaid.

The discovery of a number of seventeenth-century Instructions amongst the Earl of Dartmouth's MSS. has led Mr. Corbett to make a collection of all sets spared by the hand of time, and the book which is the result of his labours makes a fit memento of the centenary of Trafalgar. It opens with an extract from De Chaves, for Spanish tactical ideas prompted the orders drawn up in 1545. These ideas which aimed at the preservation of order soon fell out of date; the Elizabethan admirals, impressed with the value of mobility, preferred an elasticity which might seem to approach anarchy, were it not that Mr. Corbett makes out a good case for supposing the Instructions issued by Raleigh in 1617 to have been framed on earlier precedent. Passing on to 1625 we find the soldier element, imbued with a love of precision, attempting to impose greater formality on fleet movements and make more provision for mutual support, but Monson, who represents the naval opinion of his day, considered the invention of the bowline had made the strict ordering of battle a mistake since attention to form made commanders more careful to observe their directions than to offend the enemy. There was some ground for this belief in the early seventeenth century when De Grandallana, writing of the battle of S. Vincent, attributed the failure of the French and Spanish tactical systems to a too rigid adherence to form. Up to the outbreak of the first Dutch war there were no orders enjoining the use of the line ahead as a battle formation, and the Dutch are usually supposed to have devised it with a view to weaken the offensive power of fireships, to bring the fleet under better control and make the best use of its collective power. Mr. Corbett not only upsets this theory by dint of solid argument but produces an office copy of the earliest known Fighting Instructions in any language aiming at the single line ahead as a battle formation: these are dated 29 March, 1653 and from henceforth the professional soldiers of the new model must be given the credit of making themselves responsible for what at first sight might seem a tactical revolution. The Orders of 1653 formed the basis of those issued by James Duke of York in the spring of 1672, and it is now proved beyond doubt that the battle of Lowestoft was fought under the old Commonwealth Orders modified by supplementary articles of 1665. Through an error of Granville Penn the Orders of 1673, which are a final form of the Duke's Instructions, have been hitherto supposed to belong to the year 1665 and hence arose the belief that the Duke inaugurated the new system of tactics. In detecting this mistake Mr. Corbett has rendered a great service to naval history. The Fighting Instructions of 1672 mark a very considerable advance in tactics though the "Further Instructions" they embody were possibly not new. Mr. Corbett draws attention to these further orders, which for the first time introduce "rules for engaging when two fleets get contact on opposite tacks and establish the much-abused system of stretching the length of the enemy's line and then bearing down together." The final form of the Duke's orders is remarkable for the Observations appended in an unknown hand which foreshadow the Instructions issued with a full set of day and night signals by Admiral Russell in 1691. Mr. Corbett conjectures the unknown hand to be that of Lord Torrington and his suggestion is well worth following up. These Observations enable us to see that the practice of dividing the line was not abandoned without reason and prepare us for the disappearance of the article on dividing the enemy's line in making an attack from to leeward. A copy of Russell's Instructions was unearthed by Sir W. Laird Clowes in Holland; its importance is beyond question since this set turns out to be the precedent for the stereotyped Fighting Instructions which were issued down to

1783. The new signals it contains seem to have been designed to secure flexibility and the power to concentrate, and in them Mr. Corbett thinks he discerns the ripe experience of Torrington.

In any case the set of 1691, and not 1703, must in future be consulted as the body of rules in which eighteenth-century tactical ideas found their first authoritative expression. Between 1691 and 1783 amendments illustrating the progress of tactical thought were effected by means of additional Fighting Instructions tacked on to the standing form, and Vernon, seeing the necessity for more signals, made better signalling arrangements which removed some of the defects of the existing system. After the American War Howe's Signal-book of 1782 superseded the old Permanent Instructions and amendments, and all later Instructions became subordinate to and explanatory of the Signal-book. A second code came into force in 1790, and in it the signal for breaking the line borrowed from Hood, who invented it in consequence of Rodney's manœuvre, is discarded to make room for an entirely new manœuvre which substituted for the attack breaking through the enemy's line in line ahead an attack bearing down altogether in line abreast or line of bearing, each ship passing through the enemy's line where practicable. Mr. Corbett lays stress on the fundamental difference in principle underlying the two methods of attack, though Howe's immediate object in making the new departure seems to have been principally to make sure of the leeward position and so prevent the French practice of avoiding close action. A modifying instruction of the later code restored Rodney's manœuvre, probably for use in certain cases where it was important to keep the line intact, or where an attack was to be made from leeward. It is possible that even Howe himself did not grasp the full significance of his innovation, but that cannot deprive him of the honour of breaking with tradition to start a new form of attack which only required the Nelson touch to make it irresistible. The celebrated tactical memoranda of 1803 and 1805 indicate a revolution, and Nelson upon Howe may therefore seem an insufficient label to describe them even if "with care" be added. But Mr. Corbett's analysis of these historic documents makes it easy to understand how the master-mind of Nelson improved on Howe until the art of warfare under sail reached its zenith and found its highest expression in the famous plan of attack drawn up off Cadiz.

HISTORY AND CONTEMPORARY JUDGMENT.

"Select Documents illustrative of the History of the French Revolution." Edited by L. G. Wickham Legg. Oxford: at the Clarendon Press. 1905. 12s. net.

THE history of the French Revolution as well as that of Napoleon is likely for some time to occupy the attention of historians. It will be long before we are able to view its vicissitudes in their true proportions and still longer before we can correlate it with the other events in Europe which preceded it and followed it. Mr. Legg has given us useful material for the purpose, material much more valuable than the two volumes of speeches which were edited by Professor Morse Stephens some years ago. Mr. Legg's contribution consists mainly of contemporary accounts of the principal episodes of the Revolution, drawn, for the most part, from the newspapers of the time. They are undoubtedly very interesting and in some cases of real value. For the fall of the Bastille the reports of eyewitnesses are invaluable to the historian, as also for the march of the women to Versailles and for the flight to Varennes. But when we come to estimate the causes of these great events, their effects on the course of affairs and the conduct of statesmen in dealing with them, we require something more than a contemporary narrative. It is a grave question how far the newspaper press of the present day with all its mass of information, its wondrous enterprise, will form the most valuable material for the historian of the future, and whether he will not have to wait for unpublished

state papers and unrevealed correspondence. A distinguished Under-Secretary for Foreign Affairs once said that in reading his "Times" he always turned first to the cricket news because the foreign news would only tell him either what he knew long before or what was not true. Another foreign minister said that during the few months in which he held office eight events of first-rate importance had occurred, any one of which might have led to a European war, and of which not a hint or suggestion had been given by the daily press.

The history of Napoleon is being rewritten, not only because at a greater distance we are able to make a more reasonable estimate of his character but because information absolutely essential to the understanding of his conduct is only now becoming accessible. For nearly a hundred years historians have repeated the commonplace that Napoleon brought his fall upon himself by breaking the armistice of 1813 and drawing Austria into arms, also that in 1814 he might have made peace upon the terms of securing the natural limits of France. But M. Sorel, no blind admirer of Napoleon, has proved that in these crises he had no other course, and that to accept these offers would have been to fall into a fatal trap. History also, the tribunal of the world, tends to show that Metternich was as short-sighted and as wrong-headed in these earlier years as he was undoubtedly at a later period, and that the fidelity to the Napoleonic alliance, which was prescribed by the call of honour, might have secured to Austria the hegemony of Germany.

Picturesque history is fascinating. The picture records of the "Graphic" will supply excellent material for lantern-slide lectures. But do we know much more about an event when we have seen it with our eyes or recalled it to our imagination? Did those who saw Cæsar fall at the base of Pompey's statue have much notion of the effect which the tragedy then enacted would have on the fortunes of the world? If we had stood on the beach at Pevensey when William landed, or could some magic call up the details of that landing before us, should we be any better able to estimate the influence of the Norman Conquest on the future of England? So it is with these documents. They bring vividly before us the pageant of a stirring and eventful time, full of dramatic pathos, but the comments of contemporaries chiefly serve to remind us how vain is political judgment, how purblind political foresight and with how little wisdom the world is governed. Behind all this lies the inscrutable mystery, what are the causes of great events, can they be discovered or enumerated? The decay of the Roman Empire, the general acceptance of Christianity, the Reformation, the French Revolution are all events of which historians attempt to trace the causes. They are asked for in examination papers, they are given in the answers of candidates. But the more an historian knows, the more readily will he confess that he does not understand the causes, and that for him the springs of these secular catastrophes lie in a region of which no newspaper takes account, of which no Foreign Office preserves the archives and where even a Cæsar or a Napoleon must confess the impotence of his iron will.

Mr. Legg's book is admirably edited, it supplies not only a charming refreshment but a valuable and even an indispensable assistance to the serious student of the French Revolution.

RADIO-ACTIVITY: SOME POPULAR MISCONCEPTIONS.

"The Becquerel Rays and the Properties of Radium."
By Hon. R. J. Strutt. London: Arnold. 1904.
8s. 6d. net.

PROBABLY no scientific discovery of the first rank, since the promulgation of the theory of evolution, has given rise in the popular mind to more misconceptions and misunderstandings than the phenomena of radio-activity which have been discovered within the last few years. Writers in the popular press, with more daring than discretion, have gravely informed the public—ever suspicious of the teachings of the man of science—that radium has entirely overthrown the old

views as to the natures of matter and energy; that the doctrine of the conservation of energy which was built up by the great masters of the nineteenth century, and which we had been taught to look upon as the very bulwark of modern physics, has been dethroned from its proud position; that the atomic theory on which is based the whole fabric of modern chemistry has been shown to be false; and, finally, that the supposed persistence of matter is merely a myth, which before long will be replaced by what scientists have always looked upon as the fantastic dream of the mediæval magician, namely, the belief in the possibility of the transmutation of metals. They would have us believe also that, with the aid of radium, the experiments of Mr. J. Butler Burke, of Cambridge, have brought us nearer to the time—if we have not already reached it—when so-called spontaneous generation, or the transformation from the inanimate to the animate, or the inorganic to organic forms of life, has become possible.

To correct widely spread misconceptions such as these must be one of the most important functions of a book like that of Mr. Strutt's, which aims at and admirably succeeds in giving, a clear and accurate account of the highly complex phenomena of radio-activity in such a fashion as to be readily followed by the general reader whose scientific tastes somewhat exceed his scientific training. It will therefore be of interest to examine some of the erroneous popular notions, referred to above, in the light of the true interpretation of these recent discoveries as explained by Mr. Strutt in this volume.

Put quite briefly, the discovery of a group of metals, from which emanate in varying degrees of magnitude apparently inexhaustible stores of energy, has enriched our intellectual inheritance by two new scientific conceptions. In the first place it has proved that there are enormous stores of energy hidden away inside the atoms of the radio-active—and probably all—elements known to the chemist; and in the second place it has made highly probable what was at one time supposed to be impossible, namely, that certain—and perhaps all—atoms are capable of radiating away, and so losing, some of this internal atomic energy. Further, it is believed that this process of radiation is the accompanying sign of the redistribution of the component parts of the atom, which may thus be said actually to be transmuted from one chemical form to another chemical form. The stores of energy in the radio-active atoms are of astonishing magnitude, far exceeding those manifested in the ordinary molecular changes with which the chemist is familiar. The heat energy alone emitted from one grain of radium during its series of various changes is a million times greater than that involved in any known molecular change, and this energy is hardly more than a mere by-product of the intrinsic energy of the atom itself, which must therefore far exceed even that extraordinary magnitude. Perhaps even a more vivid idea of the tremendous stores of energy locked up in the atom will be conveyed if we state that the presence in the sun of 2½ parts, by weight, of radium in a million would, according to Professor Rutherford, account for its present rate of emission of energy. Clearly if it were ever found possible to control the rate of emission of atomic energy from the radio-active elements, we should have at our disposal inconceivably vast stores of useful energy, beside which the potentialities of the coalfields and waterfalls of the whole world would pale into insignificance. But this energy could only be derived from the internal energy of the atom, and there is not the remotest possibility that the law of the conservation of energy might be transgressed.

It is for the measurement of these quantities, and for the experimental proof that in some cases the internal energy of the atom is made externally realisable, that we are chiefly indebted to the recent discoveries of the nature and properties of the radium group of metals. The brilliant researches and speculations of Larmor, Lorenz, and J. J. Thomson had long ago made us familiar with the conception of an atom composed of units—disembodied charges of electricity perhaps—like a solar system, units whirling or oscillating with enormous speeds round a common centre. According to these theories we should expect to find the atom the

seat of a great store of latent energy; nay, more, it has been remarked that according to that view of the constitution of the atom it is not so much a matter of surprise that some atoms disintegrate, as that the atoms of the elements are so permanent as they actually appear to be. What the discoveries of radio-activity made by Becquerel, the Curries, Rutherford, Soddy, Ramsay, and others have done is to put the coping-stone on this theory of matter by proving incontestably the existence of these great stores of energy in the atom, and by showing that in some cases its internal configuration actually changes and gives rise to a new grouping, and therefore to a new atom. It is during such redistribution of the sub-atomic particles that the remarkable radio-activities are emitted which give rise to the electrical, thermal, and photographic effects by which we detect and measure them.

But none of this perturbs in the slightest degree the cherished convictions of the physicist and the chemist as to the conservation of energy, on which all physics is based; and with that atomic theory which helped to build up modern chemistry it has little or no concern. As to the modern alchemists, their delight is decidedly premature. The amount of energy evolved when unstable elements such as uranium, thorium, and radium disintegrate is so great that it is in the highest degree improbable that we shall ever be able to create the energy-conditions necessary for the atomic breaking up of the more stable constituents of our system of elements.

THE MONROE AGGRESSION.

"De Monroe à Roosevelt." Par le Marquis de Barral-Montferrat. Paris: Plon-Nourrit. 1905. 3f. 50c.

IT is a strange thing that in France more than in England the significance of the apparition of the United States as a world-power is appreciated in its true proportion. Because with regard to the chief events of the day American interests appear to coincide with ours we welcome and encourage the determination of this new and formidable punter to take a hand in all phases of the international game. We flatter ourselves that, because we have succeeded by means of endless concessions in securing an adjustment of immediate differences, nothing will ever cloud the prospect of perpetual peace between us. This is not the opinion of European thinkers whose vision is not clouded by the fumes of congratulatory banquets, and whose senses are not fuddled by the heady exhalations of effusive oratory. It is well sometimes to take a more detached view of American ambitions than is supplied by our own press or the outpourings of much-fêted globe-trotters, and this opportunity is given us by the author of this book, whose diplomatic training and close study of international affairs enable him to approach the whole field of American foreign policy from a far juster standpoint than Englishmen whose minds are exalted at the present time by vague notions of triumphant Anglo-Saxondom. He traces step by step the gradual evolution of the Roosevelt Doctrine of to-day from the Monroe Doctrine of eighty years ago and shows how the original protest against interference by European Powers in the internal affairs of American States has passed into the declarations of the present President that it is the right and the duty of the United States to control the proceedings of the rest of the Republics on American soil and their relations with Europe.

Some chapters of this history when they are disentangled from their surroundings of the American party strife of the day do not form pleasant reading. When we compare the unctuous assertions of elevated and disinterested principle which accompanied them with the disingenuous methods by which the end was obtained, it is not easy to see in what way they excel the effete diplomacy of Europe, at all events in morality. The American people may not be more sly than any other but it has the habit of accompanying its acts of aggression by offensive protestations of disinterestedness.

Yet it would be a mistake to argue that there has been throughout a deliberate policy of Machiavellian deceit and aggression. In a country governed like the

United States by popular election and where, owing to the nature of the constitution itself, it is at one time the President and at another the Senate that has the upper hand, there is not that continuity of design which has perhaps only been found for long in an oligarchy like that of the republics of Rome and Venice. Sometimes we see the President checking the Senate in its designs of expansion, as was the case with Cleveland with regard to Cuba and Hawaii, at others the Senate prevents some great "scoop" on the part of the President as was seen when Grant approved a treaty admitting S. Domingo into the Union which the Senate refused to ratify. But to-day, when opposition to expansion in all directions is becoming weaker, we may and probably shall see an even more consistently aggressive policy than in the past, approved perhaps less by Senate than by people and resulting in a greatly increased weight and perhaps continuity of tenure for the presidential office at the expense of the Senate. The war with Spain was only undertaken by President McKinley because it was an extremely popular move both with Congress and the electors, he was far too sensitive to popular opinion to embark upon any crusade on behalf of Cuba without having popular opinion behind him; and the imperialism of Mr. Roosevelt is very clearly the embodiment of a general sentiment quite as much as an individual conception.

The author calls attention to an amusing inconsistency on the part of Mr. Roosevelt which he displayed, or which the British Government allowed him to display, at British expense. While sending all the other Powers, which have interests in the Western Hemisphere, as well as the "sister Republics", before any arbitrators that are available when they are desirous of settling their territorial disputes, he finds the soil in which his own country may be interested too sacrosanct to be submitted to any such tribunal. In referring to the Alaska question in which we desired and offered arbitration he speaks of "those questions of national sovereignty which could not, from their very nature, be submitted to the arbitration of any third Power". But this surely is a general principle which if true at all is as true of Venezuela as of the United States. Great inconsistencies however are rampant throughout this history of American foreign policy which the Marquis de Barral-Montferrat sketches with so sure a hand. They are indeed more frequent in the history of the United States than in that of any other Power because their politicians have talked more grandiloquent commonplaces about peace and liberty than others except French Revolutionary orators. Mr. Roosevelt's recent messages with their long and turgid declamations hardly perhaps deserved the lengthy quotations which they have received in this volume, for the gist of them is easily gathered in a few short passages but, though the style be tedious, the lesson they have for the world at large is highly significant and not the least for those Powers which have possessions in or near the American continent.

DRIVEL'S DREGS.

"Idle Ideas of 1905." By Jerome K. Jerome. London: Hurst and Blackett. 1905. 3s. 6d.

IT was not an easy task for Mr. Jerome to sink below his own level, but it must be admitted that in the present case he has succeeded in doing so. Though the humour of his earlier work was of the most obvious type, though he always went on the principle of making ten bad jokes for every tolerable one he produced, though the solemn passages were indescribably nauseating, yet "Three Men in a Boat" and the rest had at least a certain bar-parlour vivacity which commended them to the crowd. In his new volume the froth is gone and nothing remains but the emptiness of Mr. Jerome's mind. Even the vulgarity which, we may presume, was one of Mr. Jerome's attractions, can hardly attract in the present case, for in truth vulgarity seems too positive an expression to apply to anything in these essays. We doubt if it would have been possible even for Mr. Jerome to be so

dull in any other medium than that which he has chosen. The stupidest novel may appeal to a jaded mind by the mere pleasure of following some sort of story; the feeblest pamphlet may give the passing satisfaction which the intellect finds in dissecting an argument. But the method of the digressive essay enables the author to wade through morasses of fatuity, to wanton by the hour in pointless anecdotes and stale reflections. To have to read such a book is like nothing so much as to be compelled to drink buckets full of flat soda-water.

"A friend of mine—he is a man who in the street walks into lamp-posts, and apologises—sees rising from the East the dawn of a new day in the world's history." We quote this exquisite sentence as a sample of Mr. Jerome's latest manner. The reader will observe that the parenthesis is a joke, while the rest of the sentence is a profound piece of sociological criticism. They fairly represent Mr. Jerome in his two capacities of humourist and thinker. To those who wish to know something of his humour in its more untrammelled flights, we commend a story (occupying nearly five pages) about a dog which attacked another dog in the streets of a continental city. Mr. Jerome swore at it, and it subsequently appeared that it was an English dog. When his own vein of humour fails he ekes it out with stories of great antiquity, such as the story of Mr. Corney Grain giving his entertainment to the servants and that of the golf-playing minister who abandoned his calling because his favourite game compelled him to swear.

Mr. Jerome's jokes are decidedly worse in this than in any of his previous efforts. It is perhaps hardly to be expected that he could make his serious passages any worse, but he has done the next thing possible, he has made them longer and more frequent. There is for example a description extremely long and trite of the early morning and its beauties. Mr. Jerome is not perhaps the first person who ever spoke of "a silent city, bathed in a mysterious soft light" or of "far-off voices whispering peace" or of "the great city's one hour of purity", but he has contrived to invest these familiar expressions with a banality which enables him to distance all competitors.

On the whole we like Mr. Jerome best as a political thinker. Were he indeed on our own side, we could hardly help feeling a certain measure of irritation at his vulgar advocacy. But we are relieved to learn that he is a Free Trader and an opponent of Imperialism. His anti-imperialism picks up some remarkable information; such, for example, as that "there are no poor in Holland", a statement which anyone who has visited the back streets of Amsterdam and Rotterdam can easily verify.

We suppose that Mr. Jerome knows his public better than we do, but we should hardly imagine that this volume will raise his reputation even among his admirers. People who like Mr. Jerome's ordinary work like, we may presume, well-worn jests of the "mother-in-law" type elaborated till they are obvious to the dullest brain, a good deal of impudence and a strong flavouring of vulgarity—also, perhaps, a certain amount of what, we believe, is called "pathos". But we do not imagine that even they like their stories and jokes to be entirely without point or their sentimental appeals to be mere maudlin repetitions. Mr. Jerome has risen to fame by reason of his vulgarity; he will probably sink into oblivion by reason of his quite intolerable dullness. Indeed he must thank the vacuity of the present season, and nothing else, that the SATURDAY REVIEW has been able to perceive him.

NOVELS.

"The Pride of Mrs. Brunelle." By A. H. Holmes. London: Burleigh. 1905. 6s.

Mr. Holmes seems to have had at his command the material for a fairly interesting novel, the story of a woman who was unhappily married, who committed theft in New Zealand as much by accident as design, was imprisoned, came to England with her mother, and achieved social rehabilitation. But all this is set out in

as maddeningly obscure and elusive a manner as the brain of man could well conceive. Nobody ever speaks out. One of the characters "saw that she was alert for the smallest hint he should give of being willing to throw off his reserve and he was reminded that to go further with her might very well enable him to have the fullest view of the complexities". To accompany Mr. Holmes confers no such enlightenment: his readers, like another of his characters, "remain somewhat aloof, panting, physically at first, and always spiritually". Here is a specimen of dialogue: "'And Miss Corless?' 'Oh . . . she sees it as I do—Seneca's money round his ethics, you know; and even Pascal's legs swathed in brandy-cloths.' 'So that when things are normal?' Mr. Harlow questioned approachably. But he was sharply reminded that he had made a concession; for Mr. Chine told him promptly, with the accompaniment of a watchful smile: 'Well then, you know, there's just humanity, or shall we say society, isn't there?'" We know no more why these silly puppets converse in this way than we understand why the principal character is called indifferently Canon Harlow and Mr. Harlow, or why every speaker interjects "you know" into every second sentence. Mr. Chine belongs to the most despicable variety of the literary affected type, and is well matched by a feminine prig of free-love proclivities. Mr. Holmes has no doubt taken pains with his work, and at times he shows insight. But his enigmas require extraordinary patience, and the solution seldom brings an adequate reward to the inquirer. Anybody can imitate Mr. Henry James' less happy mannerisms, but Mr. James makes his characters interesting, if sometimes irritating, and Mr. Holmes has not succeeded in doing this.

"Two Moods of a Man." By Horace Hutchinson. London: Smith, Elder. 1905. 6s.

As a study of a peculiar temperament this novel is interesting, but the supposed narrator tries so hard to see the principal person in a sympathetic light that he comes to cut somewhat of a poor figure himself. George Hood, an eccentric young man of some ability, goes through a Romany form of marriage with a beautiful Spanish gipsy. He brings her to England, where she continues to live the roving life of the caravan, while he alternates between the greenwood and his London club. His feeling for her is more than mere passion, but she has no share in his intellectual life (which, by the way, as presented by Mr. Hutchinson, is not profoundly original or unapproachably lofty). One day he meets a brilliant American girl, comes to know her well, falls under her charm, and begins to reflect that his tie with the gipsy girl does not amount to a legal marriage. His course of action may be imagined, but the person who really seems to act most badly is the sympathetic friend who, having stayed in the gipsy van as Hood's guest and thereby discovered that the earlier connexion was not a vulgar liaison, consents to act as his best man at his civilised wedding in church. He pays, however, by having to accept the post of confidential adviser to the new couple, whose union is not altogether a happy one. Hood's character is interesting, for the man is far better than his actions. The introduction of the bewildered guest to the caravan life is a delightful scene. But "Two Moods of a Man" is hardly a successful novel, though it has merit as a succession of scenes. George Hood is the only figure whose character is thoroughly revealed, and so anxious for this revelation is the author that he makes sure of his effect by the incorporation of much semi-metaphysical discussion little above the undergraduate level.

"Glenannaar: a Story of Irish Life." By the Very Rev. Canon P. A. Sheehan. London: Longmans. 1905. 6s.

Canon Sheehan's very loosely constructed story gives a faithful picture of farm life in County Cork sixty years ago, and its motive is the Irish hatred for informers. The narrator is a kindly humorous priest of the present day (who might with advantage have played a larger part in the book), and the old stories set forth belong to the family history of a returned Irish American, who talks freely to him. Terence

Casey, "the Yank", though a good hurley-player and a faithful lover, is not a very interesting person; but the story of his mother's life is really dramatic. Canon Sheehan introduces with effect some actual incidents connected with the Doneraile Conspiracy of 1829 and the sensational appearance of O'Connell at the trial. The interests of historical accuracy compel us to observe that some at least of the Doneraile conspirators whom O'Connell's eloquence saved from the gallows were almost certainly guilty of a peculiarly atrocious scheme of murder, and, secondly, that it is, to put it mildly, misleading to say of the 'twenties that "men were hung by the way-side without trial by roving bands of mercenaries and yeomanry". We fancy also that Canon Sheehan stretches the probabilities when he represents the helpless infant child of an informer as doomed to exposure and death on the roadside but for the kindness of a single farmer. But the dislike which any self-respecting peasant family would feel to marriage with a member of such a stock is not in the least overdrawn, and Canon Sheehan probably does not over-rate the wholesale vindictiveness towards the tainted breed. It is rather odd, by the way, that we hear very little about the priests sixty years ago: the deserted heroine apparently has no hope of help from them. Our author in this seems hardly just to his own predecessors. The book is little more than a series of scenes, but the night ride to Kerry to fetch "the Counsellor" and the terrible days of the Great Famine eighteen years later are described with remarkable power. Irish peasants—real, not stage Irishmen—are excellent company, and Canon Sheehan is a good guide.

"Behind the Throne." By William Le Queux. London: Methuen. 1905. 6s.

This is a story of political intrigue in modern Italy, the central figure, a Minister of War, being as honest as he can afford to be. His daughter (who, being blessed with an English mother, is naturally on a higher moral plane than the iniquitous foreigners who surround her) is sought in marriage by a French renegade, steeped in the arts of espionage, and loved by a young Englishman who had had the misfortune to hand a French general a glass of poisoned brandy. Then we have an Italian officer wrongly convicted of treason, and a vulgar English millionaire politician, so that the reader gets a fine international atmosphere and plenty of incident. If Mr. Le Queux were to be taken seriously we might protest against his lurid picture of the political morality of a friendly nation, but we do not suppose that he is much read in Italy—or by English people whose views on Italy matter.

"The Little Hills." By Nancy Huston Banks. London: Macmillan. 1905. 6s.

What the little hills which we are reminded on the title-page "shall bring righteousness unto the people" have to do with this story it is not easy to determine. The narrative is concerned with a little American village "far down in a remote corner of the green earth", with the little people who lived there, and with their little peculiarities; and it is pervaded by such a general flatness that one is driven to feel that if there were any eminences in the surrounding country they were not hills but hillocks. In an earlier novel, "Round Anvil Rock", Mrs. Banks relieved her overflowing sensibility with a touch of melodrama, which we could almost wish were present in this volume. She now appears as a frank imitator of Miss Mary Wilkins, and the imitation is not very successful. Aspiring authors should think sometimes of the fate of Marys. In reviewing recently the "Village Chronicle" of Mrs. Macquoid, we thought that we had broached a cask of the very smallest ale; but it seems that the American variety is even smaller.

NEW BOOKS AND REPRINTS.

"The Naval Pocket-book." By W. Laird Clowes. London: Thacker. 1905. 7s. 6d. net.

The incurable malady which Sir William Laird Clowes fought so long with such admirable pluck has claimed its

victim, and, with the Pocket-book in hand, we mourn its founder. Throughout his life Sir William strove hard to interest the public in the navy and it will be no easy task to fill the void his death has caused, for writers who have made a special study of naval subjects are few and far between. Of his numerous contributions to naval literature none has taken a firmer hold than "The Naval Pocket-book" and the latest number will not lose by comparison with any of its predecessors. The issue for 1905 contains a new feature in the shape of a table which attempts a comparison of the fighting strength of the principal Powers. The classification based on dates of launching is rough and ready and therefore the conclusions arrived at require to be checked by the details given about guns, armour and speed which can be obtained from the various tables further on in the book. The plates show some improvement on those of last year in being more distinct; as usual, many of them will be found to differ slightly from the plates of the same vessels appearing in the "Naval Annual". The Tables of the Navies of the World contain very full particulars about each ship and they are stated to have been corrected up to 31 March, but the "Gaidamak" and "Vsadnik", officially reported before that date to have been destroyed, are included and the errata make no reference to them. The battle of Tsu Shima has enlarged the catalogue of corrections made at the last moment, but the war has wrought many changes which must still be sought for in the columns of the daily press. The exhaustive information on guns and small arms and the list of dry docks with their dimensions are alone sufficient to make the Pocket-book indispensable, and we may rest assured that though Sir William is no longer with us his work will not be allowed to perish with him.

"Selborne." By H. W. Tompkins. "The Temple Topographies." London: Dent. 1905. 1s.

Mr. Tompkins, whose "Highways and Byeways of Hertfordshire" we recollect dipping into with pleasure, writes of White and Selborne in an attractive manner. His touch is just right for the book which is not too guide-bookish—a kind of confidential chat for true Selbornites. Mr. Henry J. Howard illustrates the book with pretty enough sketches too, which remind one of Mr. Symington's delicate sketches of south country scenes. We have no Birket Foster to-day for "elmy England", but a good many black and white artists who in sympathy and care, if not exactly in originality, help to fill his place. Mr. Tompkins is usually so well informed that we are surprised to find him slipping into the error of supposing that White of Selborne is not and cannot be read to-day for his natural history. On the contrary he deserves to be read for this more than for anything else. He was a wonderfully sound and accurate naturalist, and most of his observations have never been, and never will be, improved on. He erred in believing that swallows and other birds of passage often hibernate in England. But in White's day nothing was known of migration, and he himself had no special opportunities for studying the question by first-hand and practical observations. Occasionally he made mistakes in classifying birds, but on the whole White was far and clear sighted as a naturalist, an admirable reasoner—the greatest field naturalist who ever wrote a book. What, by the way, has become of the diary of his brother, kept at Fifield in the latter part of the eighteenth century? It might well be published in full. Natural history evidently ran in the White family.

"Secondary Education in Hampshire" (Portsmouth: Holbrook), by M. E. Sadler, is a report on Secondary and Higher Education in Hampshire which we have received from the Education Office at the Castle, Winchester. Hampshire has public schools for secondary education at Bournemouth, Southampton, Portsmouth, Winchester, Alton, Alresford, Basingstoke, Andover, and a few other small towns, and Mr. Sadler describes in detail their work and prospects. He also in some interesting preliminary remarks touches on the subject of secondary and higher education generally. The most valuable results of this education, he considers, "do not consist in book-learning or in the possession of certificates but in alertness and openness of mind, in clearness of thought, in the power of getting to the bottom of things, of drawing right conclusions from facts, and of grappling with difficulties in a practical and persevering way; in ability to work with other people; in firmness of moral principle; in courage, reverence, and self-control". It must be admitted that Mr. Sadler's view of what education should include is comprehensive enough: if it does half as much for every other pupil—or say for ten per cent. of the pupils—England will not be behind in the competition of nations. The business of secondary and higher, as supplements to elementary, education is to turn out a man as full and perfect as is humanly possible. Mr. Sadler's definition really amounts to this. And of course we all agree. Mr. Sadler's figures show that—including the private schools—the number of people in Hampshire in the secondary schools at present is equal to 10·73 in the thousand, a fact very creditable to the county. In the United States in 1891–2 the number of the whole population in secondary schools was 6·2 per thousand:

by 1901-2 it had risen to 9.4 per thousand. The United States would however show a better average than English counties were it not for the Southern States which are so backward.

"Norway and the Union with Sweden." By Fridtjof Nansen. London: Macmillan. 1905. 2s. net.

On the whole the feeling of foreign nations, for what it is worth, is perhaps against Norway in the rose-water revolution which has ended the union between Norway and Sweden; not so much that they care particularly for the rights or wrongs of the dispute as because it tends, however slightly, to disturb the quiet of the world, and therefore the comfort of themselves. The author evidently believes that England is inclined to view the action of his country unfavourably; so he has addressed his book to English readers and his desire is to help the foreigner "to form a somewhat more just estimate regarding the difficulties which have arisen in the relations between the Northern countries". He sees, naturally, with Norwegian eyes, but if he has prejudices they are of the patriot not the partisan. There is no doubt that Norway smarted cruelly from the indignity of being deprived of her share in the foreign relations of the allied nations: whilst this continued, the alliance could never be satisfactory. King Oscar felt that he could not conscientiously make the concessions which Norway demanded in this matter. These facts are very clear. It is a vastly different thing when we come to consider who was right and who wrong. We knew, however, that the Union was bound to end unless Sweden agreed to Norway's demand, for the whole of the Norwegian people was practically agreed; so perhaps the sooner the better. Now it looks as if before long a good, working alliance will take the place of a union which had grown useless, even dangerous. Nansen's book, admirable in restraint, will certainly do nothing to embitter feeling in either country.

The Storting some years ago voted a sum of money for the publication of a book on Norway. This work was translated into English by J. C. Christie, H. L. Brækstad, Jessie Muir, P. Grott and H. Wesenberg, and is published by Sampson Low. We have received a reissue of it, which may be usefully placed by the side of the corresponding official work on Sweden. History, politics, education, agriculture, fishing, forestry and other subjects are treated of by some of the most authentic Norwegian writers. The chapter on Norwegian Literature is especially interesting. "Plant Life" and "Animal Life" are good so far as they go, but very little space has been given them.

"A Memorial of Horatio Lord Nelson." By S. Baring-Gould. London: Skeffington. 1905. 2s. 6d.

With the approach of the centenary of the battle of Trafalgar it is inevitable that cheap biographies of Nelson should appear. An unpretentious work is Mr. Baring-Gould's brief memorial, in which the writer attempts nothing more than "to sum up in small what has been written by others at large". As Mr. Baring-Gould looks at the bright side of Nelson's life and ignores the stains it may be said to be a good book for boys. The little book is heavily weighted with fifteen full-page illustrations.

"The Tyrol." By W. D. McCracken. London: Duckworth. 1905. 5s. net.

Mr. McCracken has collected in this volume sundry fugitive papers which have already appeared in magazines, mostly American, and he has added to them fresh material. There is no distinction about the style, which is sometimes slipshod; but, to those who already know the country he describes, the author at times renders a service by recalling pleasant memories which will be still more agreeably refreshed by the many really excellent photographs with which the volume is furnished. Mr. McCracken touches on many points of interest connected with this most fascinating land; sometimes perhaps his comments are slight and perfunctory, as in dealing with Dante and the Trentino, but he at least supplies clues which his readers may follow up. But why does he call his book "The Tyrol" when, as he shows elsewhere, he is well aware that the definite article should not be there? He uses such expressions as "the land Tyrol" and "Italian-speaking Tyrol" which are correct and it is a pity that he should have made concessions to a popular misnomer.

The Statistical Year Book of Canada for 1904, which has just come to hand, contains the usual full but concise record of Canadian progress down to the beginning of 1905.

An idea of the extent to which art is utilised in the interests of the advertiser is afforded by an entertaining exhibition opened on Saturday last by Messrs. W. H. Smith and Son in Norfolk Street. Messrs. Smith have recently developed this side of their printing business. The poster, catalogue and book work to be seen on the walls is by popular artists like Mr. John Hassall, Mr. Cecil Alden, Mr. Charles Pears, and Mr. H. Rowntree.

REPRINTS OF ENGLISH CLASSICS.

"Hakluytus Posthumus, or Purchas His Pilgrimes." By Samuel Purchas B.D. Vols. V. and VI. Glasgow: MacLehose. 1905. 12s. 6d. net each.

Two more volumes of "Purchas His Pilgrimes", the welcome reissue of which by Messrs. MacLehose we recently noticed at considerable length, have made their appearance and we are glad to observe that the favourable impression made by the first four volumes is confirmed by the latest instalment. Printing, paper, maps are all as they should be, and we are particularly pleased to observe the insertion in Vol. VI. of a reproduction of the portrait of Sir Thomas Burton, taken with the owner's permission from the original at Cordingham Park, as it may help to remind the twentieth century of the claim that the gallant explorer has on all to whom the making of Greater Britain is something more than a trite phrase. The contents of the two new volumes do not lend themselves very easily to analysis, but broadly speaking they fall into two very unequal halves. The first part of Vol. V. is concerned mainly with the English and the Dutch in the East Indies, Amboyna naturally being specially prominent. "Amboyna that sitteth as a Queene between this Isle of Banda and the Moluccas. Neptune is her darling, and entertaynes in her very bosom"; and the delightful comment on Java by Captain Humphrey Fitzherbert must be noticed for its remarkable truth. "The Bandanese", he writes to his employers, "left it for want of militaire policie; but he must have a politick pate (I believe) that gayneth it again". With this pithy sentence ringing in our heads we are thus introduced to the "Observations of Africa, taken out of John Leo his nine Bookes" and these take us comfortably into Vol. VI. where we are invited to continue our African exploration and under various guides travel into Barbaria, Morocco, Algiers and after a dash into Egypt and a flying tour to Malta we return to the "Golden Kingdom of Guinea" and to the Congo, and the regions of the seventeenth-century slave trade. The whole of this Vol. VI. is in fact a singularly entertaining contribution to geography, anthropology and politics, packed with information and bristling with episodes which lose nothing in the brevity

(Continued on page 286.)

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with which they are so vivaciously chronicled. And if to-day we are disposed to think the Moorish question is a creation of our own, certain chapters in this book would soon dispel so shallow a conclusion. After all statesmen are remarkably uninventive. The sections on Morocco compiled by the industrious Samuel Purchas reveal that "peaceful penetration" as a remedy for what was three hundred years ago deemed to be a moribund and anarchic empire, ripe and ready to fall into the lap of an organised European State, had already been thought of by more than one daring trafficker into the hinterland of the coast from Tangier to Cape Mogador, and was being tried by more than one statesman. You shall read what came of it and why, and we cordially commend the account to certain gentlemen at the Quai d'Orsay and in the Wilhelmstrasse, for they might spend their summer holiday less profitably than in learning the truth of the salutary maxim that experience is the name which is best given to the mistakes—of others.

"The Diary of Samuel Pepys." Edited by Henry B. Wheatley. Vols. VII. and VIII. London: Bell. 1905. 5s. net each.

With these two volumes Mr. Wheatley brings his edition of Pepys to a close. They cover the period from July 1, 1667, down to May 31, 1669, when, having as he said kept his record in shorthand, Pepys had to resolve, owing to the state of his eyes, that if he was to continue his diary it must be kept by others in long-hand. He "must therefore be contented to set down no more than is fit for them and all the world to know." Mr. Wheatley's edition is scholarly, excellent in regard to type, and cheap. A valuable index, obviously compiled with the greatest care, fills 100 pages.

"Poetical Works of Alfred Lord Tennyson." Bijou Series. $2\frac{1}{2} \times 2 \times \frac{1}{2}$ inches. 1,035 pages. London: Eyre and Spottiswoode. 1905. 1s. 6d. net.

Mechanically this is no doubt a remarkable book. We give certain measurements above that readers may appreciate the mechanical skill the booklet represents. It should be added that considering into how small a compass all is compressed the type is clear. But, except as a mechanical curiosity, we can see nothing to commend in these toy books. They are silly useless little things, and if multiplied become an absolute nuisance.

Messrs. Dean have issued in one volume Motley's "Rise of the Dutch Republic" (5s. net) with a biographical Introduction by Professor J. Franklin Jameson of Chicago University. Professor Jameson reminds us that Motley would have been surprised if he sold 100 copies of the book, which he produced at his own expense, in England during the first year: as a fact he sold 17,000.

In the pretty series "The King's Novels" the De La More Press has published "The Household of Sir Thomas More", by Anne Manning. Mr. Richard Garnett writes an introduction to this volume, in which he points out the pleasant uses as well as the limitations of this imaginary diary of Mistress Margaret Roper. It is an agreeable little book to dip into though, as Mr. Garnett says, it does not take long to discover by such phrases as "living consciousness" and "dreamless sleep" that the language is not that of the sixteenth century.

We have received two volumes in the Muses Library (Routledge, 1s. net each) one comprising selections from the poems of Johnson, Goldsmith, Gray and Collins, the other the legends and lyrics of Anne Adelaide Procter; George Eliot's "Silas Marner" in the King's Novels (De La More Press, 2s.) with an introduction by Mr. Richard Garnett, and Disraeli's "Coningsby" in the New Pocket Library (Lane, 1s. 6d. net), with a brief introduction by the Earl of Idlesleigh.

For this Week's Books see page 286.

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COUNTY OF LONDON.

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The LONDON COUNTY COUNCIL invites applications for the appointment of a DISTRICT INSPECTOR, under the Chief Inspector (Education). He will be required to inspect public elementary day schools and evening schools, and, if necessary, any other educational institutions within the district allotted to him.

The salary is £400 a year, rising by annual increments of £25 to a maximum salary of £600 a year.

The person appointed will be under the control of the Chief Inspector, and will be required to give his whole time to the duties of the office, and will in other respects be subject to the usual conditions attaching to the Council's service, particulars of which are contained in the form of application.

In connection with this appointment there is no restriction with regard to sex.

Applications should be made on the official form to be obtained from the Clerk of the London County Council, at the County Hall, Spring Gardens, S.W., or at the Education Offices, Victoria Embankment, W.C. The applications must be sent in not later than 10 A.M. on Saturday, the 23rd day of September, 1905, addressed to the Education Offices as above, and accompanied by copies of not more than three recent testimonials.

Canvassing, either directly or indirectly, will be held to be a disqualification for appointment.

G. L. GOMME,

Clerk of the London County Council.

The County Hall, Spring Gardens, S.W.

16th August, 1905.

COUNTY OF LONDON.

L.C.C. SCHOOL OF MARINE ENGINEERING. APPOINTMENT OF JUNIOR DEMONSTRATOR.

THE LONDON COUNTY COUNCIL invites applications for appointment as Junior Demonstrator in Physics and Electrical Engineering at the L.C.C. School of Marine Engineering, Poplar, for three evenings a week.

Applications should be made on the official form to be obtained from the Clerk of the Council, Education Offices, Victoria Embankment, W.C., to whom they must be returned not later than 10 A.M. on Monday, 18th September, 1905, accompanied by one copy of three testimonials of recent date. Candidates applying through the post for a form of application must enclose a stamped and addressed envelope.

Candidates other than successful candidates, invited to attend the Committee, will be allowed third-class return railway fare, but no other expenses.

Canvassing, either directly or indirectly, will be considered a disqualification.

G. L. GOMME,

Clerk of the London County Council.

Education Offices, Victoria Embankment, W.C.

21 August, 1905.

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LANGLAAGTE DEEP, LIMITED.

From the DIRECTORS' REPORT for the Three Months ending 31st July, 1905.

TOTAL YIELD.

Total Yield in Fine Gold from all sources 20,488'862 oz.
Total Yield in Fine Gold per ton on tonnage milled basis .. 6'861 dwts.

WORKING EXPENDITURE AND REVENUE.

Dr.	Cost.	Cost per ton milled.
£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
To Mining Expenses—		
Mining £44,133 5 9		
Developing 5,214 5 1		
Milling Expenses 49,347 10 10	0 16 6'299	
Cyaniding Expenses 6,305 13 10	0 2 1'338	
General Expenses 5,358 11 1	0 1 9'332	
Head Office Expenses 2,605 9 6	0 0 10'469	
	1,718 0 9	0 0 6'903
Working Profit 65,335 6 0	1 1 10'544	
	20,663 9 6	0 6 11'034
	£85,998 15 6	£1 8 9'579
To Interest £ s. d.		
" Net Profit 2,869 2 6		
	18,394 7 0	
	£20,663 9 6	

Cr.	Value.	Value per ton milled.
£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
By Gold Account £85,998 15 6		£1 8 9'579
	£85,998 15 6	£1 8 9'579
By Balance Working Profit brought down .. £20,663 9 6		
	£20,663 9 6	

NOTE.—The 10 per cent. Tax on Profits due to the Government of the Transvaal on the Profits for the Quarter is estimated to amount to £1,578. The Capital Expenditure for the Quarter has amounted to £4,132 17s. 5d.

In May last year Directors, in pursuance of the powers vested in them by Article 32a of the Company's Articles of Association, decided to create and issue 50,000 New Shares of £1 each, thus increasing the Capital of the Company from £750,000 to £800,000. As stated in the circular issued to all registered Shareholders, the issue was decided upon in order to permit the erection of further 80 stamps and additional cyanide and tube mill plant thereby necessitated, thus raising the stamping capacity of the mine to 200 stamps, any surplus moneys being applied to the reduction of the Company's current liabilities. The Shares were offered to Shareholders pro rata to their registered holdings as at 14th June, at a price of £2 15s. per Share, the issue being guaranteed at the same price by the Rand Mines, Limited. Supplementary Articles of Association embodying the increase of Capital were duly registered on 7th July, 1905, and the amount realised by the Issue, viz. £137,500, has been received. The work of extending the plant is now in hand.

The Eighth Annual Meeting of Shareholders will be held in the Board Room, "The Corner House," Johannesburg, on Wednesday, 18th October, 1905, at 3 P.M.

By order of the Board,
H. A. READ, Secretary.

Head Office, Johannesburg,
August 1905.

GLEN DEEP, LIMITED.

From the DIRECTORS' REPORT for the Three Months ending 31st July, 1905.

TOTAL YIELD.

Total Yield in Fine Gold from all sources 18,807'639 ozs.
Total Yield in Fine Gold per ton on tonnage milled basis .. 7'922 dwts.

WORKING EXPENDITURE AND REVENUE.

Dr.	Cost.	Cost per Ton milled.
£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
To Mining Expenses—		
Mining £32,585 9 3		
Developing 6,494 8 0		
Milling Expenses 30,079 17 3	0 16 5'539	
Cyaniding Expenses 7,465 13 4	0 3 2'737	
General Expenses 5,042 3 3	0 2 1'486	
Head Office Expenses 2,063 17 1	0 1 2'981	
	1,556 11 5	0 0 7'868
Working Profit 56,108 2 4	1 3 7'613	
	22,878 17 3	0 9 7'647
	£78,986 19 7	£1 13 3'260

Cr.	Value.	Value per ton milled.
£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
By Gold Account £78,986 19 7		£1 13 3'260
By Balance Working Profit brought down .. £22,878 17 3		
Interest 385 18 10		
	£23,264 16 1	

NOTE.—The 10 per cent. Tax on Profits due to the Government of the Transvaal on the Profits for the Quarter is estimated to amount to £1,884. The Capital Expenditure for the Quarter has amounted to £4,577 14s. 6d.

An Interim Dividend (No. 2) of 10 per cent. was declared on 13th July, 1905, for the period ending 31st July, 1905, and will be payable on 4th September, 1905, from the Head and London Offices to Shareholders registered on the Company's Books on 31st July, 1905. Holders of Share Warrants to Bearer will receive payment of Coupon No. 2 attached thereto, on presentation at the London Office.

The Eighth Annual Meeting of Shareholders will be held in the Board Room, "The Corner House," Johannesburg, on Wednesday, 18th October, 1905, at 3 P.M.

By order of the Board,

H. A. READ, Secretary.

Head Office, Johannesburg,
August, 1905.

THE CROWN REEF GOLD MINING CO., LTD.,

JOHANNESBURG, TRANSVAAL.

From the DIRECTORS' REPORT for the Quarter ending 30th June, 1905.

TOTAL YIELD.

Total Yield in Fine Gold from all sources 37,175'251 ozs.
Total Yield in Fine Gold per ton on tonnage milled basis .. 12'952 dwts.

WORKING EXPENDITURE AND REVENUE.

Dr.	Cost.	Cost per ton milled.
£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
To Mining Expenses 36,398 12 5		0 12 8'176
Mine Development 1,069 0 10		0 0 4'469
Milling Expenses 11,478 12 3		0 3 11'090
Cyaniding Expenses 8,045 0 2		0 2 9'635
Accumulated Slimes 4,305 9 11		0 1 6'377
Crown Dump Treatment 1,944 8 2		0 0 8'129
Pioneer Dump Treatment 316 12 11		0 0 1'394
General Charges 3,960 4 1		0 1 4'557
Monthly amount written off for Additions to Machinery and Plant 10,500 0 0		0 3 7'898
Head Office Expenses 78,108 0 9		1 7 2'555
	2,642 4 11	0 0 11'047
Working Profit 80,750 5 8		1 8 1'608
	75,410 15 7	1 6 3'280
	£156,161 4 3	£2 14 4'882

Cr.	Value.	Value per ton milled.
£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
By Gold Account £156,161 4 3		£2 14 4'882
By Working Profit brought down .. £75,410 15 7		
Interest and Sundry Revenue 1,804 16 9		
	£77,215 15 4	

Cr.	Oz.	Value.	Value per ton milled.
£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
By Gold Account—			
Mill 20,313'241		85,382 18 9	1 9 8'971
Cyanide 5,093'018		25,181 18 5	0 8 9'282
Concentrates 2,930'066		12,300 4 9	0 4 3'495
Slimes Current 2,140'090		8,984 7 0	0 3 1'562
Slimes Accumulated 2,047'899		8,601 3 6	0 2 11'060
Dumps 3,750'937		15,710 12 7	0 5 5'683
	Oz. 37,175'251	£156,161 4 3	£2 14 4'882

Cr.	Value.	Value per ton milled.
£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
By Working Profit brought down .. £75,410 15 7		
Interest and Sundry Revenue 1,804 16 9		
	£77,215 15 4	

The Capital Expenditure for the quarter has amounted to .. £2,415 9 1
Less monthly amount written off for additions to Machinery and Plant 10,500 0 0
Cr. £8,084 10 11

The 10 per cent. Tax on Profits which is payable to the Government of the Transvaal has not been allowed for in the above figures.

ROBINSON GOLD MINING COMPANY, LIMITED.

JOHANNESBURG, TRANSVAAL.

From the DIRECTORS' REPORT for the Quarter ending 30th June, 1905.

TOTAL YIELD.

Total Yield in Fine Gold from all sources 55,378'329 ozs.
Total Yield in Fine Gold per ton on tonnage milled basis .. 14'019 dwts.

WORKING EXPENDITURE AND REVENUE.

Dr.	Cost.	Cost per ton milled.
£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
To Mining Expenses 56,362 11 1		0 14 3'228
Milling Expenses 19,186 11 5		0 4 10'288
Cyaniding Expenses 12,535 15 3		0 3 2'084
General Expenses 3,669 3 0		0 0 11'147
Head Office Expenses 2,805 19 6		0 0 8'594
Working Profit 94,560 0 3		1 3 11'071
	138,513 18 1	1 15 0'801
	£233,073 18 4	£2 19 0'079

Cr.	Value.	Value per ton milled.
£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
By Gold Account £233,073 18 4		£2 19 0'079
To Interest, Exchange, and Commission 79 10 4		
Net Profit 139,685 14 0		
	£139,765 4 4	

By Balance Working Profit brought down .. £138,513 18 1
Revenue and Interest 1,251 6 3
£139,765 4 4

The Capital Expenditure for the Quarter has amounted to £4,577 14s. 8d.

NOTE.—The 10 per cent. Tax on Profits which is payable to the Government of the Transvaal has not been allowed for in the above figures.

An Interim Dividend (No. 26) of 8 per cent. was declared on 23rd June, for the period ending 30th June, 1905, and will be payable on or about 4th August, 1905, from London and Johannesburg Offices to Shareholders registered in the Company's books on 30th June, 1905. Holders of Share Warrants to Bearer will receive payment of Coupon No. 26 attached thereto on presentation at the London office of the Company.

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